The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 1, 1916.

Summary of the News

Talk of peace has been dominant in the news of the week, entirely eclipsing interest even in the note to Great Britain. The first Annual Convention of the League to Enforce Peace opened its meeting on Friday of last week, and on Saturday the President spoke at the banquet of the League. The speech was occupied almost exclusively with the position of the United States in regard to the conclusion of the war. The gist of the President's remarks was that, while with the war's "causes and its objects we are not concerned," we are "as much concerned as the nations at war to see peace assume an aspect of permanence," and the United States is, therefore, ready to join a league of nations to prevent war. As indicated by his disclaimer of any concern with the "causes and objects" of the war, the President was severely neutral. If he spoke of the object of the proposed league of nations being to stop wars begun in violation of treaties, he also alluded to the necessity of maintaining the freedom of the seas.

In Germany it is notable that the censorship on talk of peace appears to have been wholly lifted; indeed, it is obvious that the press receives official encouragement to speculate on the possibility of mediation by President Wilson. In the Allied countries the President's speech has been received with little perceptible enthusiasm. The London *Times* asserts that President Wilson's "electioneering speeches are bringing him on dangerous ground," and that "a compromise between right and wrong is impossible." The *Daily Chronicle* declares that "Germany is working up a peace move in her own interests, and is plainly counting on American opinion to help her." Sir Edward Grey, in an impromptu speech in the House of Commons on May 24, replying to the German Chancellor's recent declarations, reiterated his previous statements that talk of peace at present was idle, and emphasized the pact of the Allies not to conclude a separate peace. He added that if any of the Allies had a right to speak of peace at the present moment it was France.

The food situation in Germany is evidently serious, and apparently the newly appointed "food dictator," von Batocki, is having trouble in his dealings with the Federal States. Dispatches from Amsterdam report him as having declared to the Reichstag that "great difficulties are arising out of the relations of the Federal States." The complaint seems to be that other states are being made to suffer in behalf of Prussia. Perhaps the most illuminating comment on the difficulties of the Government is the announcement, on Sunday, of the appointment to the committee assisting von Batocki of August Müller, a Socialist of Hamburg.

The text of the new American note of protest against Anglo-French interference with neutral mails, dated May 24, was published in the papers of May 27. The note is emphatic in tone. After stating the belief that Great Britain, France, and the United States are in accord in regard to the principles at issue, it rehearses in vigorous language the violations in practice of international law which have resulted from the application of the "so-called blockade" to neutral mails. It states that the United States "can no longer tolerate" these practices, and concludes with the assertion that "only a radical change in the present British and French policy, restoring to the United States its full rights as a neutral Power, will satisfy this Government."

An agreement has been entered into by the Danish and Norwegian Governments with Great Britain by which they consent voluntarily to permit their steamships to visit Kirkwall and submit to search without the formality of seizure at sea.

The British Military Service bill, making service obligatory for all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-one, was signed by King George on May 25.

A new vote of credit for £300,000,000 was agreed to without division in the House of Commons on May 23. This brings Britain's total expenditure on the war to £2,382,000,000.

Mr. Asquith made his expected statement on the Irish situation in the House of Commons on May 25. It was unexpectedly terse, consisting principally in the announcement that Mr. Lloyd George had undertaken the rôle of conciliator in Irish affairs and in an appeal to the House to refrain from discussion of the question while negotiations were proceeding. The trial of Sir Roger Casement has been fixed to commence on June 26.

In the war the week has been marked by a continuation of the Austrian offensive, which, after considerable gains, seems, as we write, to have slackened, and by the renewal of terrific German assaults at Verdun. The latter also met with initial success, notably in the recapture of Fort Douaumont, but they seem to have been as fruitless to make any substantial gain as those which have preceded them, while the French contention is that the German losses more than compensate for the small amount of advantage won. There are certain indications of approaching activity on the Salonica front, dispatches at the beginning of the week having announced the invasion of Greek territory by a considerable Bulgarian force. A protest against the invasion has been lodged by Greece at Sofia, Berlin, and Vienna. Popular outbreaks are reported to have occurred in Athens following the news of the invasion.

Considerable activity has marked the operations of German and Austrian submarines in the Mediterranean during the past week, twelve vessels having been reported sunk. Half of the loss has been borne by Italy, and one of the Italian vessels, the Moravia, is declared in unofficial dispatches to have been sunk without warning. If this should be officially confirmed, it is presumable that the incident would demand the attention of the State Department. Of the other six vessels, two were British, one Greek, one Russian, one Spanish, and one unknown. That the recent settlement of the submarine controversy does not command universal approval in Germany was indicated in dispatches of May 23, which stated that at a meeting of the Central Board of the German National Liberal party a resolution was adopted calling upon the party in the Reichstag to urge unlimited use of the submarine weapon in the event that the United States does not "yield to the condition set forth in the last German note." The Russian Embassy in Washington on May 25 made public a summary of the findings of a special commission which investigated the torpedoing of the Russian hospital ship Portugal by a Turkish submarine. The findings made it clear that identification marks were so plain as to be unmistakable.

The Senate Committee on the Judiciary on May 24, by a vote of 10 to 8, ordered a favorable report on the nomination of Louis D. Brandeis to be an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

The Naval Appropriation bill, calling for a sum of $241,449,151, was reported to the House on May 24. Debate on the bill was begun on Saturday. The building programme authorized is for five battle cruisers, four scout cruisers, ten destroyers, three fleet submarines, seventeen coast submarines, one fuel ship, one ammunition ship, and one hospital ship.

A verdict acquitting the defendants in the Riggs Bank case in Washington was returned by the jury on May 27, after a consultation of only nine minutes.

From Mexico there is little news to record. Carranza's new note was expected on Monday, but its heralded bearer arrived in Washington innocent of the existence of any such communication, and whether the note is to be looked for or not seems now to be in doubt. One of the Villista leaders, Cervantes, was reported killed in a running fight near Cruces with a small party of General Pershing's troops on May 25. Secretary Baker announced last week that the 116 members of the Texas militia who failed to present themselves for muster into the Federal service in response to President Wilson's call would be ordered immediately before military courts-martial.

Recent dispatches from Peking indicate that the retirement of Yuan Shi-Kai is expected in the near future. The Nanking conference has been dissolved without having effected a compromise between North and South, and most of the members of Tuan Chi-Jui's Cabinet have resigned. President Yuan has announced his willingness to retire when a new Government shall have been formed.

Gen. Joseph S. Gallieni, former French Minister of War and famous as the Military Governor of Paris who organized the "taxi-cab" army that turned the tide of battle at the Marne, died at Versailles on May 27.

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The Week

Secretary Lansing's note to the British and French Governments is strong not only in tone but in substance and method. It declares without any softening of courtesy the gravity of the offences complained of, and the far-reaching importance of the principles asserted in our protest against them. Submission to such practices, says the note, "would open the door to repeated violations of international law by the belligerent Powers on the ground of military necessity of which the violator would be the sole judge"; and it declares that "only a radical change in the present British and French policy, restoring to the United States its full rights as a neutral Power, will satisfy this Government." This emphatic assertion of our position derives additional weight not only from the strong presentation of the nature of the injuries suffered by citizens of the United States through the seizure and detention of mails, but also from the explicit statement of the limits within which we admit such seizure, detention, and in proper cases confiscation, to be legitimate. The note is calculated to bring to an issue this most vexatious question.

The appropriation by the Rockefeller Foundation of $1,000,000 for the relief of the war sufferers in Servia, Poland, Montenegro, and Albania is a splendid service to humanity, and will do an amount of good that the imagination can hardly picture. But instead of being a reminder of the magnitude of what our country as a whole has been doing for the relief of the vast and dire misery of the stricken millions of Europe, it should be a reminder of the smallness of what we have done in comparison with what we ought to do. And the reminder, coming on Saturday, was particularly timely, because the following day—Memorial Sunday—had been designated by the Federal Council of Churches as a day upon which a special appeal should be made from the pulpit to bring home to the people the high duty which we have thus far so imperfectly met. The facts and figures contained in the pamphlet issued by the Council are impressive and convincing; and not the least moving consideration expressed in it is that of the way in which a great manifestation of helpfulness in relieving the misery of Europe will strengthen American influence in the enormous work of international reconstruction after the war.

Sir Edward Grey's statement regarding the outlook for peace is the most specific declaration that has so far come from British official sources. Hitherto we have had the rather anomalous situation that it is the visionaries both in England and in Germany who have been clamoring for a definite announcement of the terms on which the Governments would be willing to make peace, while the responsible statesmen have indulged in hypotheses or gone in for academic discussion of who was responsible for what happened in 1908 or 1914. Now we have an authoritative opinion that the time for peace has not yet come. Even more concrete was Sir Edward's assertion that if it is for any one of the Allies to speak of peace, it is France who must take the lead. She stands first among the Allies after Belgium in the magnitude of her services and her sacrifices, and England stands last. It is not for Great Britain to express weariness of a war in which she has lost least of all. If Belgium, France, and Russia are willing to go on fighting, any move towards peace by England would be received as a betrayal of the alliance, of which the immediate effect would be victory for Germany, and the ultimate effect one of disastrous consequences for the future position of Great Britain.

The new war credit of $1,500,000,000, granted to the British Ministry by Parliament, brings the total requisition thus far in 1916 up to $3,000,000,000 and the aggregate since the war began to $11,910,000,000. This latest requisition, M. Asquith stated, will provide for England's necessities only up to August. A dispatch from Berlin reports that a new war credit of $2,500,000,000 will presently be asked from the German Reichstag, making $12,500,000,000 since the war began. The estimates of required expenditure indicate roughly that England is now spending at the rate of $8,500,000,000 a year, and Germany at the rate of $6,000,000,000. Part of the difference between the two sums, though not all of it, is due to England's advances for war purposes to her allies and colonies. Some idea of the burden imposed on the financial resources of the two countries may be got from the fact that the largest total subscription by the English market to new securities of every kind in any previous year of peace was $1,337,000,000; the largest German total very considerably less.

It is therefore evident that even the practically complete cessation of issue of other than war loans in the English and German markets has not anywhere nearly provided the requisite capital for the war expenditure. Something like 27 per cent. of the English outlay is now met by new taxation, though Germany still raises virtually nothing in that way. But even so, the figures leave so formidable a drain that, after all allowances for re-sale, by London or Berlin, to neutral markets, of the securities of those neutral countries still held in Europe, the question is naturally asked by the casual observer, how long the process can possibly continue. The only answer which economic history and experience can make is that human sagacity and financial estimates have always underrated a wealthy nation's capacity to bear such strain. The outlook in that regard is no less perplexing, theoretical demonstration of a coming breakdown no less plausible, than it was when applied to the United States in 1862 or to England in 1799. Yet every prediction of the economic prophets was coufuted by the result on those occasions. In the last analysis, indeed, it must be remembered that, so far as is known, no European belligerent has yet resorted to the direct issue of Government paper money for the war expenses—a recourse which, with all its grave incidental evils, means at least that the state is commandeering all the property of its citizens, and paying for it in notes-of-hand to be met at the Government's convenience.

The selection of Lloyd George as mediator in the affairs of Ireland is due to his long experience in conciliation of labor, but, more than that, to the fact that he is *persona grata* with the Unionist party. It will be recalled that the repeated drives by Northcliffe and Carson against the Coalition Cabinet have had, for their ostensible object at least, the replacement of Asquith by Lloyd George. The situation which must be faced in Ireland is somewhat as follows: On the one hand, the machinery of government in the island has broken down, by Mr. Asquith's confession. On the other hand, there is a scheme of government for Ireland on the statute books awaiting enforcement. This, of course, is the Home Rule act which became law shortly after the outbreak of the war, but which was by law suspended till the termination of the war. The Home Rule act provides that any of the counties in Ulster may, by popular vote, be exempt from the operation of the act for a period of six years, after which term, in the absence of further Parliamentary action, the law shall be applied to the whole of Ireland

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Against this provision the Unionists protested as a "sentence of death for Ulster with a stay of execution for six years." But under the sobering influence of the tragic events at Dublin it is not unlikely that both sides will agree upon the application of the six-year formula, the Nationalists conceding that it does not mean the dismemberment of Ireland, and Ulster admitting that a stay of execution for six years is something of a respite after all.

Mr. Roosevelt naturally denounces the proposal to restore the old Engineering Corps in the navy, because he was more responsible than any one else for its amalgamation with the line of the navy. He sees in the plan nothing but a bit of petty grafting by Secretary Daniels and Congress, since it will involve thirty new officers a year. But this is so infinitesimal a bit of graft compared with the thousands upon thousands of offices created during the next five years by the Army bill, that some other explanation should be sought. By no means everybody shares the Colonel's view that the present system is ideal. There have been a number of bad engine-room accidents since then, and there is much talk to the effect that the warrant machinists, who are the engine-room subordinates, are the real steam engineers of the navy. A Congressional inquiry would probably be necessary to establish the facts as to that, but it does make people uneasy that England has not followed suit in her navy, and that so much is required of our navy officers. They are usually able men technically, but is it not asking too much of any group of men that they shall be competent navigators, infantry officers, aviators, experts in ordnance and gunnery, and all the rest, and high-class steam engineers as well? This is the question still to be answered; and it is interesting to note that the merchant navy, with its far more limited requirements of its officers, has never thought of making its men on the bridge and in the engine-room interchangeable.

It is not a swirl of passionate enthusiasm that has landed Chancellor Day in the lap of Col. Roosevelt, but for all practical purposes it will suffice. The process of Chancellor Day's conversion is admirably summed up in a single paragraph. The times all for a strong man in the White House, and the ideal man for the job would be former Vice-President Fairbanks. But since Mr. Fairbanks is out of the question, the best man for the job would be Charles E. Hughes. But since Mr. Hughes is needed to protect the Supreme Court against Mr. Brandeis, it follows that a man like Mr. Roosevelt, presumably combining in himself the best qualities of Fairbanks and Hughes, "would have saved us from humiliation in Europe and Mexico." These are the steps by which the head of Syracuse University came to see the light. The chronology of his conversion is somewhat more complicated. It was not under way in 1906, when Dr. Day was convinced that "anarchism in the White House is the most perilous anarchism that ever has threatened the country"; nor in 1908, when the country had never witnessed "its Presidency descend to such a shameful degeneracy of demagogy." The change was probably under way when Dr. Day entertained the Colonel during the Barnes libel suit last year. It was clearly manifest last January when he wrote: "Theodore has made a booby of Wilson." The odd thing is that this expression occurs in a letter to Congressman Sherwood, of Ohio, congratulating him on his bold stand against Preparedness. "I am sure that the American people are not in sympathy with this cowardly war-cry that pretty nearly disgraces us." Therefore, Dr. Day has accepted Roosevelt because the Colonel now holds "saner views" about the Standard Oil Company, because he is, presumably, against Preparedness, and because he is the one man who embodies these principles best—after Fairbanks.

Bryan, Sulzer, and Hobson are among the candidates "being considered by the Prohibition leaders" for nomination for the Presidency at the Convention of the party in July, says a Chicago dispatch. So far as the first named gentleman is concerned, a Washington dispatch states that he refuses to treat the report as worthy of attention. Nevertheless stranger things have happened than would be his acceptance of the nomination if tendered. As the Prohibition Convention is not to be held until six weeks after the Republican, and five weeks after the Democratic, the campaign by that time may have taken such shape as to intensify the "paramountcy" of the prohibition issue in Mr. Bryan's mind to the requisite point. As for Sulzer and Hobson, they are presumably both of them in the condition of the willing Mr. Barkis, and either of them would supply an element of the picturesque which has been lacking in former Prohibition campaigns. Whether, as a vote-making asset, this would balance other elements in the personality of "the same old Bill" or of the spook-hunting Alabamian, the Prohibition leaders will doubtless consider before acting. But at all events, if any one of the three were chosen, the Prohibition campaign would be sure, in one way or another, to get more first-page space in the newspapers than it has been in the habit of enjoying.

Mr. James J. Hill's career must remain one of the marvels of the development of our West. It is true, of course, that many other Americans who have risen from humble beginnings have also achieved wealth and fame. But Mr. Hill never lost his balance, nor his wise foresight. His successes did not go to his head like those of other men whose prosperity made them indifferent to the rights of the public. He was a prominent railway figure during that epoch when the railways were portrayed as the chief enemies of the Republic, and yet he himself retained to the end a rare degree of public confidence. This was in large measure due to his own democratic simplicity and straightforwardness, as well as to his rectitude and public spirit. But it was also owing to a universal appreciation of his breadth of vision. Sometimes he was misled into rather alarmist views by this very ability to look far into the future, but there was none the less so much of the statesman in him that whenever he spoke the entire business world listened. It was in appreciation of this, of his great constructive ability in the manipulation of railways, and his ability to reduce railway costs of operation, that the James J. Hill professorship of transportation was founded at Harvard a couple of years ago by many of his business friends and admirers.

The late Timothy Dwight, during the dozen years of his presidency, impressed himself upon Yale, and Yale upon the country, both by what he did and by what he refused to do. Like President Eliot, who had been stirring things up at Cambridge for a decade and a half when Dwight was elected to the headship of the rival institution, he began a new epoch for his college on its material side. His administration saw a greater addition to Yale's financial resources than the entire preceding 185 years of its existence. His name is identified also with the development of Yale College into Yale University. But he stood firmly against the elective system, and athletics never appealed to him as a major pursuit. In both

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of these matters, his attitude at the time seemed more unprogressive than it seems now. The elective system had its triumph, but is now undergoing great modifications, and it has become the fashion for college presidents to cry out against the encroachment of the physical upon the intellectual. Yet there was more than religious significance in the election of a successor to President Dwight who did not wear the cloth. As if to carry the divergence between the heads of Yale and Harvard to the end, Dwight resigned at the age of seventy, after a comparatively brief service of thirteen years, in accordance with his dictum that a university president should retire at three score and ten, while Eliot, rounding out four decades as president, resigned at the age of seventy-five.

At the inauguration on Thursday of last week of Robert Moton as principal of Tuskegee there was appropriately "an industrial exhibit showing practical work in forty important occupations," with a graphic representation by boys and girls of the function of the rural school in training negro youth. The speech of the new principal strengthened the assurance that just as he would carry out Booker T. Washington's policy in striking a median path between action that might provoke race hostility on the one hand, and any surrender of essential rights on the other, he would also insist that the negro's main opportunity is in industrial and agricultural work—especially the latter—in the South. His entrance upon the principalship marks a new phase in negro education. The preliminary steps have been taken, and in not only his own but other schools the administrative lines have been marked out. With about 30 per cent. of the negroes lacking a rudimentary education, the task, as he says, is still an enormous one; but most of the work of the pioneer has been done, and both white and black races are convinced of the value of the general avenues of effort chosen by Booker Washington and others. It is now for negro leaders like Moton and Holtzclaw, private philanthropists, the directors of foundations like the Slater, Jeanes, and Phelps-Stokes funds, and governmental agents, to extend and consolidate the ground mapped out by the pioneers.

The return to civilization of one of the scientists with the MacMillan expedition is a reminder that at last we have produced a type of Arctic exploring party that can succeed even if it fails in its main objective. The MacMillan party found the Crocker Land a mirage; but equipped with specialists in botany, zoölogy, and geology, they are bringing back a budget of scientific knowledge that will fully repay their effort. Heretofore the scientific ends served by Polar invasions have been largely geographical, oceanographical, or meteorological—one or two men, as Stefansson, having ethnological achievements to their credit. The International Polar Expeditions of 1881-83 brought back other knowledge, published by the co-operating Governments; more has been added, particularly by Nansen; but there is a vast deal of supplementary information to be gathered. Arctic insects, birds, mammals, plants, and rocks deserve intensive study, as do Arctic fishes, of which scarcely more than 125 species are known. The MacMillan expedition found scientists in graduate students only a few years out of college, who were quite capable of the work required, able to face severe hardships, and endowed with the enthusiasm of specialists seeking a career. Now that the chances of making startling geographical discoveries are small, it is probable that more attention will be paid to the other phases of Arctic work.

Court, jury, and counsel in the Waite trial have rendered a public service by combining common-sense with conscience in the accomplishment of a painful but necessary duty. The task, to be sure, was made easy for them by the special circumstances of the case. The issue was clearly joined. Yet the memory of other trials is sufficiently vivid in the community to have made it not at all certain that the Waite trial would not follow precedent in dragging out its weary length through a thick fog of technicalities, legal and medical. The jury's verdict has prevented the establishment of a new principle, that the greater the homicide the smaller the responsibility. Cynical persons have laid it down as a rule that when a bank clerk has embezzled $5,000 the only way to safety is to steal $50,000 more and then to purchase immunity by returning half the sum. There was a similar danger that henceforth the man who had unfortunately murdered the head of a family need only go out and kill the widow and the orphans in order to establish an irrefutable case of moral irresponsibility. On this point Justice Shearn's definitions in his charge to the jury were altogether admirable. Did the defendant know that arsenic was arsenic? Did he know that arsenic kills, and did he know that the law prohibits murder? These questions brought a technical subject within the grasp of the laymen on the jury.

The quiet adjournment of the Canadian Parliament testifies to the harmony with which the Dominion parties, after temporary squabbles, have bent to the huge tasks of the war. Aside from the inquiry into the affairs of the Shell Committee, now proceeding soberly, the outstanding events of the session have been the vote of $250,000,000 for the war, and of $250,000,000 for domestic purposes. This means a marked addition to the Dominion's debt. Yet the war vote has been accepted with enthusiasm, and the new special revenue measures are not attacked. Of these the chief are a business tax, absorbing one-quarter of the net profits of joint stock companies above 7 per cent., and higher tariff rates. The vote for home uses has been regarded as more debatable, for it includes a loan of $15,000,000 to the Canadian Northern and of $8,000,000 to the Grand Trunk Pacific, and provides for the taking over of the Quebec & Saguenay. But a majority of Canadians favor carrying through the schemes for the development of railways which the Government had undertaken long before the war.

French ability to pluck flowers from out the brier of war is illustrated by the enumeration which Louis Liard has made of the universities' gains. They have, in the first place, felt a natural drawing together under their common losses. This cannot fail to be beneficial after the war. In Paris, with its large group of institutions, from the University to the Schools of Bridges and Mines, not even the normal schools worked with any proper degree of coöperation. Now they are of necessity pooling their energies, a typical occurrence being the formation of a group of scholars for the better study in France of Slavic culture and letters. Moreover, with the French youth all at the front, they have had to attract new classes; and they have notably succeeded in the enlistment of women. In the University of Paris alone this year are 50 Frenchwomen in law, 186 in medicine, 179 in science, and 196 in the *faculté des lettres*. These last two groups bespeak a determination on the part of women to fit themselves for public instruction. Such benefits are but poor compensation for the loss to France in the stopping of so much learned work, but it is characteristic of French courage to dwell upon them.

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NOT MEDIATION BUT DEFINITION.

World-wide attention was given to President Wilson's address on world-peace. The reasons are plain. He is spokesman for the United States. To him it is given to indicate the feeling of the neutral nations. Moreover, certain of the belligerents have obviously been hoping that Mr. Wilson would take some step leading to intervention between the hostile countries. And as it was known for some time in advance that he was to speak before the League to Enforce Peace, it was inevitable that he should have the whole world for an audience.

What it heard was not an offer of mediation. For that the President thinks—and he must have had before him the results of the diplomatic sounding of all the warring Powers—that the time has not yet arrived. His original proffer of good offices remains open, and can be accepted at any time. Pending a move to accept it by any of the nations at war, President Wilson has simply outlined the ideas and hopes which the American Government would carry with it into the negotiations "if it should ever be our privilege to suggest or initiate a movement for peace among the nations now at war." In a word, it is not mediation but definition which Mr. Wilson has undertaken.

This work of reminding and defining needed to be done; and in our opinion President Wilson has done it well. No one can find fault with the spirit of his address. It was neither censorious nor hypocritical. It did not set up the United States as thanking God that it was not as other nations are—aggressive, a treaty-breaker, greedy for the lands or goods of neighbors. In demanding that the code of honor among nations be the same as that among civilized men, the President did not assert that America had never been without sin in international dealings. His attitude is that of neither reproaching nor lecturing the countries at war, but of summoning them to join us in fixing the gaze upon the ultimates of a peace in which there shall be, in Cromwell's phrase, no "worm."

Happily, in regard to the great ends to be aimed at in the final settlement, there is already coming to be something like a consensus of international opinion, along the lines drawn by the President. He is not preaching in the desert. He is telling Europeans only that which they all do know, having heard it in substance from their own public men. None of them, however, has so clearly enunciated the whole programme for permanent peace throughout the world as Mr. Wilson has now done. It is a noble vision which he unfolds: the weak secure in their own rights as against the strong; the territory of the feeblest nation inviolate; political independence, guaranteed; the oceans made a safe highway for peaceful ships. As we say, there is virtually no public dissent in Europe to-day from this general outline of the world-system which ought, for the good of mankind, to displace the hostile alliances and the sleepless animosities which flung the world over the precipice of war. The only difference of view is respecting the way in which the nations are to attain this common goal. And, here, President Wilson makes a discrimination. He would distinguish between the matters immediately in dispute between the belligerents and those which concern all the world and reach forward into the distant future. The former are to be settled either by a decisive victory in the war, or, failing that, by direct diplomatic arrangements. But the latter can be dealt with only by coöperation and good will among all nations; and the President asserts that he speaks for the people of this country in saying that "the United States is willing to become a partner in any feasible association of nations formed in order to realize these objects and make them secure against violation."

This has been the most sharply debated part of the President's address. It presents a question of fact. It also presents a question of political theory. In the matter of fact, we think that Mr. Wilson is correct. We believe it to be true that the great majority of Americans are ready to have this country cast in its lot with the nations of the world seeking a way to maintain peace. To that end we have taken advanced ground in relation to international law and arbitration. Our adherence to the Hague Conventions has already taken us far along the road which we should be travelling if we sought the destination which the President points to. It would require only a few steps more of the kind which we have before taken. But it is objected that to take them would be dangerously to disregard one of the historic maxims of the United States—to avoid "entangling alliances" with European countries. The words are already caught up by certain newspapers as if they were absolutely fatal to the course urged by President Wilson. But a little calm reflection will show that participation in a universal banding together of the nations to make peace secure could not possibly fall under Washington's warning against taking sides in purely European quarrels. It would not be an alliance at all; and if it were would be disentangling, rather than entangling. It would get us and the rest of the world out of the horrible coil of war. And, finally, as Mr. Taft has just shown, any agreement of that kind, entered into by treaty, would necessarily leave the carrying of it out to Congress; and Congress could always stop short, if the perils which affright some editors were seen to be really looming before the country.

AMERICA'S DUTY OF SUCCOR.

"The time has come," said ex-Ambassador Morgenthau, in a speech at Chicago, "for this country to assume the rôle of big brother to all the suffering now in the world. We can raise in this country easily, if properly organized, $500,000,000." Whether the figure named by Mr. Morgenthau is too big to be hoped for or not, is a question we need not consider very closely. It is the kind of figure we ought to have in mind—we ought to be thinking not in millions, but in hundreds of millions, in this unparalleled situation. We are not going to do our duty until we realize it; and next after realizing it comes that other point mentioned by Mr. Morgenthau, the question of organizing the effort in such a way as to make real success possible. A movement "properly organized" could accomplish the collection of sums far beyond anything thus far attempted; and it would require but the determined exertions of a few able and earnest men to effect that organization.

In many directions, and each of them in far more arduous kinds of exertion than that of the collection of money, our countrymen and countrywomen have done work, organized and unorganized, of which all Americans must think with genuine pride. In the hospitals, in the ambulance service, in the heroic warfare of physicians against typhus and other plagues, in the supplying of bandages and other needs of the wounded, in care for those stricken with blindness, American men and women have done nobly. In the way of organized planning and distribution of relief, not only on a large scale, but beset with almost staggering difficulties, the work of the Commission for Relief in Belgium shines out as a magnificent example of what can be accomplish-

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ed by a combination of devoted labor and the highest intelligence. That we have also sent a considerable amount of money to the stricken peoples of the Old World, and especially to Belgium, is true enough. But in comparison whether with the immense and appalling need, with our own vast and overflowing resources, or with the devotion and self-sacrifice shown by Americans who have given themselves to the work of succor, the monetary contribution of the country to the help of the desolated nations must be pronounced not merely inadequate, but utterly unworthy of the nation.

In this great work the whole people of the United States ought to take part, each man and woman rejoicing to do his share according to his means. But it is idle to expect that anything of the kind will actually be done. In any organized scheme to raise money upon any such scale as Mr. Morgenthau indicates, there must be an endeavor to make the contribution as general and popular as possible; but to imagine that any considerable fraction of so large a sum can be obtained from the offerings of people in modest circumstances is to indulge in an illusion. It is not because $500,000,000 is, as Mr. Morgenthau says, "only $5 per capita," but for quite a different reason, that there is a justified hope of raising a sum of any such dimensions. Of the 20,000,000 families in the country, possibly 18,000,000 will contribute nothing; and while in the remaining 2,000,000 there are many who will contribute generously, the great bulk of any total that runs up into nine places of figures will have to be got from the rich, and chiefly from the very rich. For the good that every addition is capable of effecting, and perhaps even more for the moral effect upon the givers themselves and upon richer men and women to whom they set an example, it is most earnestly to be hoped that people of moderate means will contribute generously; but if such an enterprise as Mr. Morgenthau has in mind is to succeed, it is absolutely essential that the duty of giving really large and handsome sums be effectively brought home to the rich.

The reason that it ought to be easy to raise in this country some such amount as Mr. Morgenthau mentions is that there are in this country thousands of men in possession of great fortunes, in the receipt of incomes which only a generation ago would have been considered remarkable, and in the enjoyment at this particular time of extraordinary and unexpected prosperity. At the very moment when the peoples of Europe are passing through an agony such as the world has never known; when whole countries are filled with the homeless, the starving, the orphaned, the widowed, the maimed; when even those countries which have not suffered the direst ravages of war are subjected to a drain on their resources such as is eclipsed only by the still greater calamity of wholesale slaughter; at this very time, we in the United States are enjoying a degree of business prosperity seldom if ever matched. Unexpected fortunes have been made by many; others have had their previous possessions and incomes greatly augmented. Apart from all this, the wealth and income quickly accumulated or commanded by large numbers of our rich men have long been such as to excite amazement, whether we compare them with what is known in other lands or with what was known even in our own country a generation ago. Shall it be said that at this time of the world's agony, when upon us alone rests in a preëminent way the duty, when to us alone is given in a preëminent way the opportunity, to help greatly in a stupendous need, we failed to respond to the call? Shall countless superfluous millions go on being expended in luxuries which mean nothing even to those who indulge in them, shall billions be added to our accumulations, and not even a respectable fraction be diverted to the fulfilment of so appealing a duty, to the answering of so agonizing a cry for help from crushed and desolated millions? We cannot believe that it will be so if the call of duty is driven home as it may be.

THE ARMY BILL.

If those militaristically inclined citizens and editors who are denouncing Congress because it has not given them precisely the number of soldiers they wished, or introduced compulsory service, were to take the trouble to read the bill which is now before the President for signature, they would, we believe, be amazed at its comprehensiveness and its far-reaching character. No military measure to compare with it has ever passed Congress—not even in the Civil War. From the purely military point of view, it ought to satisfy every militarist who has not suddenly gone daft, for it provides for really extraordinary development of the army. But most of those who are damning Congress because it has not wiped out the National Guard or created a new and untried force of volunteers, will not read the bill. As Congressman Hay said in Congress: "It is useless to try and enlighten those densely ignorant newspaper editors who have been undertaking to write about this legislation without knowing anything about it, and have been slandering the Congress of the United States without taking the trouble to find out what Congress was doing or had done."

It is worth while, therefore, to forget for the moment whether the bill provides 175,000 or 215,000 men, and just how much it merits Col. Roosevelt's censure because it has not provided the 250,000 which he fixes as the minimum for our safety, and to see just what it really contains. Mere numbers are not everything. Far from it. Given certain regiments and a proper military structure, the army can be increased rapidly enough if Americans are ready to enter it. The test of the bill should be what it has done from a constructive point of view. So far as the regular army is concerned, and omitting the question of the National Guard, even the most censorious critic must admit that the regular army fares extremely well. First, the regiments are more than doubled—the infantry from 31 to 65, the field artillery from 6 to 15, the cavalry from 15 to 25, the coast artillery from 170 companies to 363 companies, the engineers from three battalions to seven regiments and two mounted battalions, the aviation corps from 26 officers to 148, the medical corps from 444 to 805, while all the other staff corps are correspondingly increased.

Although the whole enlargement will not be completed until July 1, 1920, the first increment of increase, which dates from July 1 next, will immediately call for the appointment of approximately 3,000 new second lieutenants, a far larger number of trained officers, of course, than is available. Every existing second lieutenant will be promoted, and there will still be many vacancies in the grade of first lieutenant. Some majors will advance at one jump to colonels—and the army will be so disorganized that a year at least will be necessary to readjust it, to work out the promotions and assignments and recruit the new regiments—if they can be recruited. The increase for this year alone is virtually unparalleled, save in 1861. But this is only a part of what Congress has done. It has raised the pay of many grades of soldiers; it has organized the badly needed supply companies for each regiment, and established the machine gun companies; it calls for 822 extra officers in addition to those needed for the

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new regiments, those to serve with the National Guard, on college duty, etc., etc.

For practically the first time there is established a regular army reserve; every soldier enlisting hereafter must pledge himself to serve three years actively and four years in reserve. An educational course to fit these men for trades on their return to civil life is provided, thus doing by law what Secretary Daniels did for the navy by executive order. The reserves, moreover, are to be attached to given regiments, or corps, or are to be separately organized. As 70,000 men ought—if the army can be recruited to the number required—to pass into the reserve every year, it should in ten years amount to at least 600,000. In addition there is to be created an Enlisted Reserve Corps, in which men can enlist for four years and go to camp for fifteen days a year; and there is ample provision for training camps. As the army reserve can be called out in any year for a similar period, and with the National Guard swollen to 400,000 men, we see no reason why ten years hence fully 1,750,000 Americans should not be drilling every summer—in army or navy—and the figure might easily rise to 2,000,000. No less than *fifty thousand* reserve officers are provided for the regulars, aside from the National Guard, and for this latter body are provided a National Guard reserve and reserve battalions for the training of recruits. Two reserves for the army and two for the National Guard, and yet Congress is berated for its niggardliness! As for the colleges, the provision for officers' training corps on the Oxford model is very far-reaching. Guns, equipment, instructors, both commissioned and non-commissioned, are all supplied, and in some cases awards in money to students who pledge themselves to study and train.

This is only a brief summary, but we submit that the changes are sweeping enough to satisfy all demands. When one considers that, if the bill becomes law, there will shortly be fully a million men connected with the army still in civil life, it is perfectly evident that a great social and political change is bound up in this measure. As for its cost, no man can estimate it. The pay of the National Guard alone may run as high as fifty millions. This year's army appropriation bill itself will call for perhaps $150,000,000. What will it be when the five-year increase is complete? No one can forecast what the college training corps will cost, or the pay of the militia, or the regular army reserve. As for the equipment bill, it will be stupendous. Fortunately, as Congressman Hay has said, "these increments [by years] are wholly within the discretion of Congress in the next five years. When this war in Europe is over, 'when the war drums beat no longer and the battle flags are furled,' when the hysteria which has been pervading the atmosphere of the country has died away, when the shouting and the tumult are no more, then Congress can cut off these increments and make the standing army of the United States any number it pleases."

THE MAYOR AND HIS CHURCH.

If admiration for a public man who "ain't afeared" has not died out in New York city, Mayor Mitchel must receive warm praise for his bold and powerful statement before the Thompson Committee. That his act was one of high political courage stands self-evident. But we do not think that the Mayor was influenced by any thought of that. He was simply doing his duty as the head of the city government. As such, he had been faced by a politico-religious plot, in which certain members of his own Church were involved (the Mayor is careful to distinguish between the Church as such and certain individuals within it), and he indignantly spoke his mind about it without fear or favor. It was no mere effort of the ordinary kind to embarrass his Administration. The thing struck at the fundamentals of honest government. More than that, it went to the question of the city's obligation to see that its helpless children were treated humanely, not to say in a Christian way. And what made Mayor Mitchel's anger blaze out was the proof which he says he has, and which he holds to be complete, that "for the last two years and a half there nas been a well-organized and purposeful conspiracy, conducted by a certain number of co-religionists of my own, acting with other persons, to interfere with the proper and orderly conduct or control of the private charitable institutions of the city," with their 22,000 dependent children.

This is a serious charge. The evidence to sustain it the Mayor has given in part, and the inquiry must be pursued until every fact is laid bare. The scandal has long been threatening to burst above the surface. Now we must have it out. For all concerned it will be better so. If any man is unjustly accused, he will have the opportunity to set himself right. On the other hand, if it is clearly established that some Catholic priests have been guilty in the way affirmed by Mayor Mitchel, himself a Catholic, the authorities of the Church will have a fine chance to repudiate what has been done, and to place their great religious organization in a good light with the public. Certainly, if the Catholic hierarchy has even a part of the wisdom commonly attributed to it, and if it calls into counsel sagacious laymen of the Church, it will see that it cannot for a moment afford to defy the popular condemnation which would swiftly follow the maintaining of Mayor Mitchel's charge.

To the *Nation* nothing is more hateful than the carrying of religious prejudices into politics. Whether it is done by Catholics or Protestants, Jews or Turks, does not matter a pin's point to us. The remarks of Bishop Burgess of the Episcopal Church, as reported the other day, resenting the city's inquiry into the charitable institutions of his own Church, to which public money is given for the care of the city's wards, signify an attitude just as offensive as that of Monsignor Dunn or Father Farrell. We make no distinctions in this matter. The whole thing is vicious, wherever it shows its head. Threats to cast "the Catholic vote" against a man in office for doing his simple duty are in the same class, to our way of thinking, with menaces to use the Methodist vote or the Presbyterian vote or the Jewish vote in the same way. In every form, the manifestation of this spirit is wholly out of place in American public life. It ought to be resented and resisted by every good citizen.

That the Catholic Church is in peril of being unhappily embroiled in political controversies, is plain to any one who keeps his eyes open. Old anti-Catholic prejudices have been revived in New York, and in some neighboring States, very notably during recent years. To us this has been distasteful in the extreme. We have not a particle of sympathy with the suspicious and proscriptive spirit displayed by some Protestants against Catholics. But with this thing astir as it is, Catholics must look well to their own course. Insensate prejudice is one thing; that they cannot escape; but they must beware how they cause well-founded grievances. And in all this great work which lies so near the heart of Mayor Mitchel, it is unfortunately true that certain Catholics have so borne themselves as to bring reproach upon their Church. Monsignor Dunn speaks of Catholics wanting from the Mayor only their "rights." But in act this

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has been translated into a demand that the city shall not look into the way in which the money it gives Catholic institutions has been spent. It also has been translated to mean that every influence, open or secret, fair or foul, shall be brought to bear to intimidate those who insist upon such proper and indeed necessary inquiries. Commissioner Strong, it is known, and also Gov. Whitman, have been plied with appeals and menaces from Catholic sources. Newspapers have received letters from Catholics warning them to keep off this matter. But that way danger lies—danger, most of all, to the Catholic Church. If it precipitates a political struggle, the end of it cannot be foreseen. If it appeals to Cæsar, to Cæsar it may have to go in a way most unpleasant. In plain words, if the Catholic authorities in this city are put in the attitude of hounding Mayor Mitchel, a loyal son of their Church, for daring to be independent and humane-minded in the administration of public charities, they will be doing themselves and their cause deadly hurt. This is so patent that we must hope for wiser counsels among Catholic leaders than have so far, in all this business, seemed to prevail.

THE COMMUNITY MASQUE.

The spectators at the opening performance of "Caliban," the largest dramatic spectacle ever given in New York, must have realized at once that such a drama demands appraisal on two different grounds. In the first place, it is a symbolic work, involving pageantry, poetry, music, and the dance. The critics have borne witness to the strength of the fundamental conception of Mr. MacKaye, to the beauty of the setting and of the lighting effects, to the color and variety of the interludes, and the appropriateness of the music. But it is also a new and representative species of community drama, and its success must be measured in part by the community interest it arouses and the variety of community elements it induces to coöperate for artistic ends. The number of participants enlisted doubtless surprised those in attendance. Besides the professional actors, the symphony musicians, and the singers of the Oratorio Society, they included students from Columbia, Barnard, and City College, members of the English Folk Dance Society, German University League, and Alliance Française, factory workers and business men, boy scouts, and students of public and private schools—1,500 in all. Granting that each group attracted its own large body of spectators, we have the basis for the claim of the Shakespeare Celebration Committee that such a spectacle has definite value in knitting together the population of a city.

As an expression of the dramatic instinct of a community, the masque and pageant have a long ancestry. The performance carried its reminders of the Ridings of Plantagenet days, the moralities and chronicles of the Tudors, and the municipal pageants in which the guilds took part. To these and their Continental analogues the modern form traces a much broken line. The pageant grew more aristocratic as time went on; but in some approach to its old character it was revived in Europe and America seventy years ago by men who found their inspiration in Scott's novels. Its adaptability to the needs of the modern community celebration has now carried it into general favor. The pageant delights the eye; the histrionic action of the masque, with its allegorical personifications, offers room for genuine poetry and for the worthy representation of past events; and the scope of the whole permits hundreds of thousands to view a series of performances. In the last ten years, under the guidance chiefly of Louis Parker, in England, and Mr. MacKaye, in America, masque and pageant, or the two intermingled, have given dozens of communities opportunity to express themselves upon a patriotic or other occasion. The range of themes is infinite. Dorset, England, celebrates the 1200th anniversary of the founding of Sherborne; a pageant in honor of art and the artist is given in Cornish, N. H.; a university's celebration of its birth includes a masque; Roger Bacon is honored with a pageant; and Nevada celebrates her half-centenary with a series of scenes in which pioneers, Indians, miners, cowboys, adventurers of Carson's day, take part. As such celebrations have multiplied, those in charge have believed more and more in the power of masque and pageant to awake to better self-realization in art, in social work, and even in politics.

As an example of the social power of the masque, we are especially referred to communities like St. Louis, where some local historical event is commemorated. Probably few citizens of that city knew before 1914 that it had a record of historical interest, or cared to find out. The drama in which 7,500 actors took part, and which 500,000 witnessed, taught them better. It is asserted that it taught them also the necessity for rightly moulding its history in the present; and that the enlargement of the parks, the energetic prosecution of city-planning features, and the adoption of an improved city charter received an impulse from the celebration. Its people admit a quickening of civic spirit in masses theretofore indifferent to reform. Charleston is said to have profited in the same way. It is obvious that a celebration which is not primarily patriotic, as of the tercentenary of Shakespeare's death, cannot evoke that kind of civic feeling. It is clear, too, that claims of civic achievement through such agencies may easily be made intemperate. But it is impossible to deny that the coöperation of thousands, representing groups that have never before touched shoulder to shoulder, may often awaken a sense of solidarity and common responsibility before wanting. Where the celebration is purely artistic, as in New York, the main effects are likely to be in a new social interest in art; but there may also be a by-product of social feeling of a larger sort.

Foreign Correspondence

TWO DEMOCRACIES — FRENCH FEELING TOWARDS AMERICANS.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, May 15.

We Americans are not sufficiently aware of the living union which binds French democracy to ours. While we have been talking "efficiency," all classes in France have been thinking "liberty." The French people were supposed to be divided among themselves. Yet their *union sacrée* could not have become the determining force it has been in this war of national defence if it had not existed essentially beforehand. And, politically, this sacred union is democracy. It would take a great deal in such a democracy to turn popular feeling against the American republic—for we are supposed by all classes, Catholics and Conservatives, Radicals and Socialists alike, to represent free government in practice.

Our war with Spain brought us before the French very differently from our present outpouring of sympathy and service over France. At that time, mischief-breeding stories were circulated, mostly in London newspapers, about the turning of feeling in Paris against Americans. One of our travelling countrywomen wrote from Geneva: "I am sorry I cannot go to Paris, but I don't dare. I hear French feeling is so bitter against us that an American woman risks being insulted in the streets." Yet Americans living permanently in Paris had seen nothing of the kind. We observed no change of feeling towards us. Feeling some responsibility in the matter, four of us—two journalists and two business men, all long resident in Paris—set to work to investigate the stories. In four instances three were found to be false, and the fourth attributed to a French woman in-

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volved disrespect shown to an American woman by a Spanish woman.

It was not easy to find the kernel of fact which set such mistaken assertions growing. A few Latin Quarter students, who thirsted intellectually for combat, found money to print and post up in their cafés a manifesto proclaiming French solidarity with the Spaniards. It rang the commonplaces of their communion in Latin chivalry and history, and it may have alluded to the Yankee menace. On the other hand, more genuine mouthpieces of popular feeling, such as tramcar conductors and barbers, proclaimed themselves heart and soul with Americans. They condemned Spain unheard as an enemy of progress. This, too, was the average *bourgeois* opinion.

One of the present war-scares—in America—has been the supposed turning of French feeling against us. It would have been well to ask the necessary questions at once. Whose feeling was turning against whom? Did the Frenchman in the street, the average Frenchman, begin looking askance at the average American? Was French public opinion—both the intelligent opinion which judges for itself and the popular opinion which is made by newspapers—turning against the American Government on account of its self-regarding neutrality?

One thing is certain. The French Government has never said or done anything to disparage our Government's enforcement of its own interpretation of neutral rights. The giving up of German passengers—that is, of declared enemies of France who were capable of military service against her and whom a French war vessel had taken off an American ship near Porto Rico, but not in American waters—is one example of the French Government's good-will. The incident passed without notice in France. This was not due solely to the discretion of the Paris press. French readers by no means have their minds made up that the interpretation of neutral rights must always be in their favor. And they have been made to feel all along that the United States Government holds to legality.

With regard to American events which closely concern France, the general policy of the French press has been to copy American comments as they appear day by day in our own newspapers. There has been no choosing out of comments which are less respectful. I remember no strikingly original criticism except that of Jean Richepin, who is an Academician and a poet, but not a philosopher: "President Wilson is a scholar; he must read Horace too much and imitate Horatius too little."

Frenchmen did not wish war, and they have no difficulty in understanding our President's sincere desire to keep his country out of it. While marvelling, they have expressed no certainty that note-writing is inconclusive where Germany is concerned. And all understand of what value it has been to the Allies, with their mastery of the seas, that the American provision market has remained open. They know very well this might not have continued if the President had pushed the nation to war—let us say with Mexico.

In the elementary attribution of motives, it is Americans who have suggested to Frenchmen that our Government has been influenced by its respect for German-American voters. The French have no word for "hyphenated," but they have ample experience of the fact that republics move with their elections. And they, too, have had it made plain to them that in the naturalization of Germans as French citizens allegiance has not always followed the oath.

Publicity has been given in France to officious American peace-making expeditions. One American woman engaged in such attempts had reasoned out a happy saying: "Let the soldiers all go home, and let the kings [and we presume President Poincaré] fight it out together." She had evidently not yet learned that French soldiers and Belgian soldiers are all this time at home, where they have to fight desperately and die that German soldiers may not take their homes from them.

> We would not serve with the foe
> Whose horde ran after our maddened steps—
> But look at our fingers—they wear wedding rings.
> Has no one seen pass, O shepherd or lord,
> Our wives and our little ones, kids and the lambs?

Pacifist would-be shepherdesses seem not to have given ear to the real plaints of this war.

The discredit which obvious pro-Germanism has cast on all pacifism has in no wise turned French women against the American women engaged in it, and still less against American women in general—for very particular reasons. In their tense struggle of life and death, neither French women nor French men have had time or heart to occupy themselves with such disagreeable subjects. Even if there had been any feeling on such counts, it would have been swallowed up in another and more human feeling which is sure to outlast this war.

Our largest "American Ambulance Hospital" in France has over six hundred beds; and in the year and a half since it was opened thousands of wounded French soldiers have been cared for in it. There are other such American hospitals receiving many wounded; there are half a dozen mobile ambulances manned by Americans at the front; and there are American surgeons charged with special sections of French war-hospitals. There are American hostels for refugees from Belgium and the invaded French provinces; American *ouvroirs* for giving work to those left unemployed during war; American sanitary cars in ambulance trains carrying the wounded to all parts of France; and everywhere there goes out a steady stream of American aid in money and kind to French war victims. And every one knows of the feeding by Americans of whole populations of Belgium and the invaded French provinces and of Servians whom French soldiers meet at Salonica.

Take only the individual French men and women who have seen with their eyes Americans at work for France in her suffering. A ridiculously low estimate would be 100,000 souls, all owning tongues in their heads as well as hearts in their bodies. These tell their families, and their families tell their friends, and these tell more families and friends—like a snowball collection in religion. Our works do follow us. A wounded French soldier, speaking of all this, said: "Only one thing makes us impatient—we know that we are fighting for you as well as for ourselves, and we think you should know it, too."

Here we come on the only uncomfortable feeling which war has produced between the two democracies. It may be understood from the lack of information that led undergraduates of forty-one American colleges and universities to speak of this war, after it had been raging nearly a year, as a "misunderstanding." Right is right, and wrong is wrong, and Frenchmen know well who would profit by splitting the difference. No French man and no French woman could feel for a moment that this war is in any sense a misunderstanding between their country and Germany, or that there can be anything to arbitrate between them now. The only fear they can have is of a patronizing neutral government engineering peace.

> He is a patron who looks down
> With careless eye on men who drown;
> But if they chance to reach the land,
> Encumbers them with helping hand.

MOTHER GERMANY AND THE DUTCH MONKEY.

By A. J. BARNOUW.

THE HAGUE, April 11.
(Delayed in transmission.)

"Monkey-love" is the Dutchman's contemptuous term for a foolish mother's doting love of her children, whom the silly creature spoils for life. For it is a popular belief that the mother ape, in her over-fond embrace, squeezes her young to death. One is reminded of this folklore tragedy in animal life on reading Herr Payer's touching tribute to Holland. It was in the following terms that, on April 6, he reminded the Reichstag and the German nation of dear Holland's tribulations: "The pressure which is being exerted upon Holland has entered a stage in which it does no longer concern that country alone. Holland sees herself compelled to defend her coast, not against the Central Powers, but against the Allies. Holland is warned by the tragic fate of Greece. We here wish to declare that we are conscious of our kinship with Holland and that we fully realize that she does not only suffer on her own aceount, but for us as well. [Loud cheers.] The action of the Allies against Holland is to strangle Germany. I feel the deepest esteem for the strength of the Dutch nation, which remains faithful to its history in vindicating its independence and freedom."

This tender concern for the liberty of Holland choking in the grip of the Allies is only one instance of the many simian antics with which Mother Germany evinces her secret wish to squeeze the little Dutch monkey on her own powerful breast. And if the little thing were to die in the maternal hug, no motherly tear would be wept over its body. For the parable of the folklore ape is in so far beside the mark, as these hugs of the German mother would have little of natural impulse in them. The Dutch are not such simpletons as Herr Payer evidently takes them for. They are fairly well read in Pan-German literature, which affords a wholesome antidote against the butter of official German flattery. This is how Tannenberg, in "Grosz-Deutschland" (1911), talks about the dear little monkey: "The Netherlands are commercially dependent on Germany, and the instinct of self-preservation will force them to come back to the Empire. At present they are still in a position to state their terms; but when once we have settled accounts with England, it will be our turn to demand our due." Herr Groh writes in "Holland Deutscher Bundesstaat?" (1912): "Only an unconditional incorporation with the German Empire can guarantee to Holland the possession of her colonies. And when Germany shall be once established in Holland, she will have the head of the voracious English polyp under her grasp. British resistance, which we always and everywhere find in our way, can be

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broken only by our supremacy at sea and by a union with Holland. It is unfortunate that at present Germany has no influence on the decisions of the States-General of the Netherlands." And Ernst von Halle, in his "Volksseewirtschaft" (1902), is equally explicit: "It is terrible that the mouths of the two greatest German rivers, the Danube and the Rhine, but especially the latter, which is the principal artery of national commerce, are in the possession of foreign hands, along with a number of harbors which are of the greatest value to Germany's international trade. It is necessary that in the future the German Empire shall take footing and maintain its line of defence in those positions which offer it the best advantage." These are but a few of the many disciples of Treitschke, who as early as 1870 called it "an unavoidable duty of German politics to regain the mouth of the king of rivers, that inexhaustible source of wealth to Germany, the Rhine." In the light of these undisguised expressions of greed and envy, Herr Payer's condescending tribute to "the Dutch nation remaining faithful to its history in vindicating its independence and freedom" seems a preposterous mockery, a simian grimace of mock-maternal love.

Only recently the Dutch have had a more instructive reminder of what they may expect from Germany's loving care and disinterested affection. On the last day of March alarming rumors caused a scare all over Holland to the effect that the British Government had sent an ultimatum to The Hague demanding passage for troops through the province of Zeeland. The Netherlands Government seemed to confirm that there was some reason for anxiety by announcing that for the present no military furloughs would be granted and by calling a non-public meeting of the Second Chamber. But a few days later an official statement of the Dutch Government brought an explicit denial of the alleged ultimatum. It then came out that a bookseller at Amsterdam had circulated the false news through the capital, sincerely believing in the truth of the story, as he had it from the secretary of the German Consul-General, Baron von Humboldt. And the latter, interviewed by an editor of *Het Handelsblad*, confessed that he had received his information from the most authentic source at The Hague. The whole intrigue seemed clear at once. The informant of the Dutch Government was evidently identical with the man who had launched the sensational rumor. This also explained why the German press was so unanimously anxious to exploit the momentary scare by expatiating on the dangers that threatened Holland from the side of the Allies. It seems to have been a cleverly contrived intrigue to rouse anti-British feelings among the Dutch and to divert their thoughts from the Tubantia affair, which threatened to prove disastrous to pro-German sympathies. Of this scheme, Herr Payer's flattery was the ineffectual conclusion. When the Dutch read his speech in their papers, they were already informed of the whole intrigue, and his compliment fell flat among a hostile audience.

It has even been suggested that this Dutch scare "made in Germany" had still other ends to serve besides a diversion of people's thoughts from the latest exploits of Tirpitzian submarine warfare. In an article from the hand of Gen. Colijn, formerly Minister of War and a professed admirer of Germany, weighty reasons are adduced why Holland ought to be on her guard against either side, as even the outspoken intention of the belligerents not to harm her affords no safeguard against actions that might involve her in the war. "Mr. Asquith," said Gen. Colijn, "has declared in the House of Commons that Great Britain will respect our neutrality, and we have no reason to doubt his sincerity. But the question is whether Germany shares our confidence. Supposing our German neighbors began to feel solicitous about a British invasion in Holland, supposing they considered our defensive power insufficient to withstand such an attack, would it be an unheard-of step for the Germans to approach us with proposals to which we could not yield, as, by yielding, we should give up our neutrality with regard to the Allies?" This was written before any sensational rumors were rife, but after the scare these words seemed to acquire special import, the more so as the writer is a man of great experience in military and political affairs. Would it be so unlikely, it was asked, that the rumor about an intended British invasion was spread with a view to affording Germany a pretext for doing what Great Britain was suspected of wishing to do? It would not be the first time that these tactics were employed for the furtherance of Germany's military ends. "Holland is warned by the tragic fate of Greece," said Herr Payer. But the Dutch remember a tragedy much nearer home, compared to which the vicissitudes of Greece are a mere farce. The warning they will take is the tragic fate of Belgium.

THE PASSING OF MR. BIRRELL.

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, May 6.

The House of Commons has of late proved itself a rich mine of surprises. This week has added to the store one not least dramatic. It was not the appearance of the Prime Minister at the table asking leave to bring in a bill authorizing compulsory service for the war. The House is not unfamiliar with a readiness on his part, having sworn he would ne'er consent to a particular line of policy, under pressure of circumstances consenting. Nor was it the reading of the telegram from General Headquarters in Dublin briefly announcing that three of the men who signed the proclamation of a republic in Ireland and were responsible for many deaths and the destruction of Dublin's far-famed thoroughfare, tried by court-martial and found guilty, had that morning been shot. What happened was discovery of the statesman who for nine years has been responsible for the government of Ireland seated, not on the Treasury Bench, but on the stool of resignation, if not of repentance—the corner seat of the bench immediately behind Ministers.

While questions were going forward it was noted that Mr. Birrell was absent from his accustomed place. There was nothing ominous about the incident. After a week spent amid the turmoil and tragedy of rebellion in Dublin, the Chief Secretary, just returned, might be excused if he snatched a brief interval of rest before resuming Parliamentary duties. When he was observed moving towards this corner seat of historic memories, dropping into it with something like a sigh of relief, the secret was out. A quick movement and a low murmur passed along the crowded benches. Here was another resignation by a Cabinet Minister, leaving the harassed Premier the difficult task of finding a new Irish Secretary.

Mr. Birrell's speech was short, dignified, in a passage here and there eloquent with the charm of genuine feeling voiced in simplest language. Such a one was the description of his drive for the last time from Phœnix Park through familiar streets of Dublin, "reviewing the smoking ruins of a great portion of Sackville Street when I was surrounded by my own ruins." At this point it seemed as if emotion, against which he bravely struggled, would gain the mastery and bring the speech to abrupt conclusion. Amid a low cheer of sympathy he recovered himself and went on to the end. The House of Commons is always at its best on such occasions and did not now fall below the level. The Premier, who spoke with answering emotion, bore testimony to the regard and affection with which the retiring Minister was held by his colleagues. Mr. Redmond chivalrously insisted upon sharing responsibility for the mistake, frankly owned, of underrating the danger of the situation underlying the attitude of the Sinn Fein fraternity. Sir Edward Carson, admitting that he had been in conflict with the ex-Chief Secretary ever since he went to Ireland, bore generous testimony to his honesty of purpose, earnestly hoping that the latest episode in his career might not in the slightest degree interfere with his political activities in the future. These things said and done, the Parliamentary report adds: "Mr. Bonar Law presented a bill to amend the British North America Act of 1867." Thus doth the Mother of Parliaments, having indulged in a flood of sentiment, put her damp pocket-handkerchief in her pocket and get on with business.

While personally popular with all sections of the party in the House of Commons (with the exception of Mr. Ginnell), it must be said that Mr. Birrell's exceptionally long tenancy of the Irish Office has not varied from the characteristic of failure common to a long line of predecessors. While he won the full confidence of the leader of the Irish Nationalist party, some of Mr. Redmond's followers did not deprive themselves of the privilege of adverse criticism. They complained of frequent absence from Dublin, to which they attributed alleged lack of knowledge of Irish affairs. On the other hand, as Sir Edward Carson admitted, the Unionists found themselves in continuous conflict with a Minister whom they regarded as excessive in his complacence towards the Redmondites. His style of speech, bubbling with humor, flashing with wit, which added a new word to the English language, worked against him. "It's all very well," growled a member on one of the benches opposite, after listening to a sparkling speech through which the Chief Secretary had charmed a crowded House into laughter and cheers, "but you can't birrell about Ireland."

When, the other day, a stranger, by way of attracting public attention to a cause he had at heart, dropped down to the floor from the Strangers' Gallery, the Chief Secretary, turning to a colleague on the Treasury Bench, remarked: "I never knew a man to find his feet on the floor of the House of Commons so quickly." Mr. Birrell never firmly found his feet at the Irish Office, and it may be safely assumed that in shaking its dust from off his feet he goes his way gladly, conscious that, as Sir Edward Carson said, he ungrudgingly "did his best."

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Gerhart Hauptmann and Tragedy

By PHILO M. BUCK, Jr.

Von Taumel zu Taumel vorwärts, von Rausch zu Rausch
—"Griechischer Frühling."

The German poet Richard Dehmel has somewhere said that the present age has overcome tragedy. There have been others who for a quite different reason have said the same thing. On the other hand, his admirers have no qualms in acclaiming Hauptmann as the leading modern tragedian, and they point with confidence to his plays from "Before Sunrise" to "Odysseus" as a warrant for their faith. Formerly many of these, because of their generous use of Silesian and other dialects, presented almost insuperable difficulties to the reader who has only a slender hold on classical German. But now that they are being systematically translated and collected,* the reader should have no great difficulty in critically estimating the significance of Hauptmann as a tragedian.

I.

In 1907, Hauptmann made a long deferred visit to Greece, a religious *Pilgerfahrt* remotely suggestive of Goethe's journey to Italy. It was an attempt "to win a new life," to get into touch with the classical spirit; and his romantic broodings are feelingly recorded in his "Griechischer Frühling." He exclaims over his dreams of Greece now dreamily realized: "How intimate and natural this influence of Greece, not to be caught in the mind of Homer or even of tragic poet." The book is suggestive, if for nothing else, for the utter inability of a certain type of German mind to appreciate the meaning of Greek culture.

But the most significant thing about the book is the fact that it is a naïve commentary on Hauptmann's poetic and dramatic art. "Here gods and heroes are products of the soil! They are as native to the country as its fruit. The soul of the husbandman was stark and naïve. Stark and naïve were the gods." In consequence, "both tragedy and comedy have nothing to do with weak and over-refined nerves, still less the poet, and least of all the public." It is interesting, then, to inquire the meaning of his stark and naïve ideal, and what is this so-much-to-be-commended absence of weak and over-refined nerves, in which Hauptmann sees the glory of Greek tradition?

To him the secret of the greatness and strength of Greece was that its people were a stark, mountain-bred race—hunters and herdsmen, who knew the greatness of Nature, "where the rawness and the earnestness of the north united with the softness and charm of the south." And it was best for later civilization that it was so, for if with Plato we may call the soul a tree whose roots are in men's minds, then "it seems to me that the minds of the hunter, the herdsman, the hunter-herdsman, are the finest and noblest roots." For such men are in daily communion with the ancient powers, *die Urmächten*, whose potency transcends and shatters reason. "To the men of that time worldly wisdom was not the thing longed for or welcomed, but life, the deeper life, the *Rausch*-engendering riddle."*

And it is precisely in this wonder and terror, inspired by the gloom of the primitive powers which men sought to propitiate by means of human sacrifices, that Hauptmann sees the origin of tragedy. It is a madness-inspired sacrament of man's blankness before the great riddle of existence, and a confession of his impotence in the face of the dark forces of nature. To its origin in human sacrifice we must go if we would understand the true spirit of tragedy. For "among the dramas which men played in honor of the gods those were the most holy and the most pleasant to the gods, in which the blood ran thickest." "There is no true tragedy without death, guilty or guiltless. . . . The reek of blood ascended from the stage, from the orchestra, to the fermenting crater of the trembling multitude, and above all this to the Olympian rows of blood-eager divine shadows on high." Nor can modern tragedy escape from the potent thrill of its origins. "It may not be denied, tragedy is enmity, revenge, the living frenzy of hate and love; tragedy is anxiety, need, danger, pain, torment, martyrdom; it is malice, crime, vileness; it is murder, blood-lust, incest, butchery—the only reason why incest came to be potent in the realm of horror. To look upon a true tragedy is to congeal almost to stone, to look upon the face of Medusa."

Allowing for the intoxication of a first visit to Greece of one by nature romantically inclined, and hence for a degree of overstatement, there is enough in this brief summary to give criticism a sober pause.

Were this attitude towards Greek culture and Greek tragedy of no significance to his own dramatic work, it might be well to pass it by in silence and regard it as only one more misunderstanding and misapplication of the work of such antiquarians and anthropologists as Jane Harrison. We know it is probably true that many of the finest flowers of our civilization had their roots in the decaying soil of abysmal superstition. Primitive Greece may at one time have indulged in an orgy of human bloodletting in the service of a mysterious deity. Other tribes have done the same and seen in the thickening blood no tragedy. There have been other mountain races with crags and dells as redolent of the breath of north and south as those of Greece, and there have been unintelligent herdsmen and hunters in other lands who have crept a shuddering path between potent and speechless *Urmächten*. And a frenzy of "hate and revenge and blood-lust" may produce a reign of frightfulness on the stage as elsewhere, but it alone is not tragedy.

II.

But origins aside, this view of tragedy and the tragic lies at the heart of Hauptmann's own dramatic creed. It shows itself in the choice and handling of his themes, his attitude towards life, in the emphasis which he everywhere puts upon pure emotionalism, and above all in his selection of characters.

The young Schopenhauer once wrote to his mother: "Everything is washed away in time's stream. The minutes, the numberless atoms of pettiness into which every deed is dissolved, are the worms that gnaw at everything noble to destroy it." The same youthful pessimism is the kernel in all of Hauptmann's plays, whether tragedies or comedies, and is the secret of the potent effect of his naturalism. Though he writes that "the tragic is the terrible acknowledgment of the unavoidable and bloody seal of the power of Fate," yet we seldom catch more than a fleeting glimpse of the more worthy and dignified pessimism of the philosophic Schopenhauer, the view of the world as a ceaseless and remorseless working of a blind and irrational Will. Hauptmann may have been influenced by Schopenhauer, but it was not by his rational and serious thought, but by the popular, petty, and eccentric dilettante view of his rugged theories. Deep pessimism, though it can never be truly tragic, is at least dignified. Hauptmann's naturalistic pessimism is wayward and childish, decadent, and even malicious.

The world of Hauptmann's tragedies is childishly irrational at heart. Things go right or go wrong, not because of any apparent law or of any effort on the part of the characters, but because of sheer caprice. It is a world that ceaselessly flows, but whence, or whither, or why, none of the characters may ever hope to discover. Gabriel Schilling made a convulsive effort to escape from an intolerable burden, but found his way blocked in every direction; and only death could put an end to the riddle. Ulysses came back after twenty years of toil and endeavor only to find a doubtful welcome. Drayman Henschel, forced to a choice, chose unwisely, and all of his struggles were of no avail against death. Rose Bernd became almost unconsciously the plaything of a malicious fate. Heinrich had almost made a superman of himself and a woman of Rautendelein, a creature "all mood and impulse," and then this world and conscience flowed over him, burying him and his bell forever. Starschenski wed Elga, thinking he had reached the pinnacle of happiness, but her heart was elsewhere, and his joy in life crumbled to dust. Michael Kramer, the serious and creative artist, destined for great things, was shattered in soul by the pathological waywardness of his son. "Griselda" seems about to end unhappily, but the irrational moods that drove away the wife were followed by others equally irrational, and hus-

*Authorized edition of "The Dramatic Works of Gerhart Hauptmann." Translated into English. Edited by Professor Lewisohn. New York: B. W. Huebsch. 6 volumes now in print; $1.50 net, each.

*Discussed further in "Some Recent Philosophy of Literature."—*Unpopular Review*, April, 1915.

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band and wife were reunited; but it would have been equally possible by prolonging the play only a scene or two to uncover another mood, and the play could as easily have been a tragedy. Even the comedies waver in this uncertain world of irrational mood and impulse. Their happy termination is but a lucky throw of the dice; another throw, and the happy winner might have to settle his score with death, so capriciously unstable are the ingredients of life.

But more than this, the background of life which he discloses, the *Milieuschilderung*, in which fate plays its malicious tricks, is revolting to sensitive nerves. As the dramatist makes one of his characters express it, "Closely looked upon, the world is stupidly vulgar and indecent beyond words." Critics with delicate noses have long exclaimed against the indecorousness and malodor of naturalism; but much of their objection is beside the mark. It is possible, I presume, to write a tragedy with a laundress as heroine. Certainly fiction has often succeeded in writing accurately of even the most lowly, and has not offended against good taste. But when indecency is coupled with malicious caprice, when we have scenes like the last act in "Rose Bernd," or when it is put forward as an end in itself, as in the "Weavers," even a strong resolution falters. But the irrational vulgarity of Hauptmann's *Milieuschilderung* does not stop with scenes from the life of peasants and weavers and paupers, like Rose Bernd, the Baumerts, and Hannele; it permeates the life even of the upper classes. "Das Friedenfest," "Gabriel Schillings Flucht," and "Einsame Menschen" reek with indecencies, shown in the attitude of the characters to one another, to life, to things in general. There are few generous impulses and no ethics, for moral judgments imply thought, and Hauptmann's characters seldom think. As one reads these plays, one feels an almost irresistible impulse to throw open the windows and let in a gush of the outdoors. It might clear people's brains and quiet their nerves. But critics like Kurt Sternberg have praised the accuracy with which Hauptmann achieves his backgrounds. It is impossible to read a play like "The Weavers" or "Rose Bernd" without feeling that here naturalism in the drama has gone its full length and achieved its object. The characters are no longer even remotely typical, but their acts stand out stark in their individual eccentricity. The scenes are as sharp in their lines and lights and shadows as a photograph. Hauptmann has often been called a disciple of Ibsen. He probably was in his earlier plays, like "Das Friedenfest" and "Einsame Menschen," but here he parts company with his master once and for all.

Even the plots have become naturalistic, structurally loose, and, like the world, irrationally flowing. Any one of the scenes in "The Weavers" may be given by itself. "The Rats" is a loose pasting together of two stories. There is scarcely one of his plays which could not by wholesale cutting be made to end in the first or second act. All we should lose would be the thrills that accompany the successive and convulsive exertions of the characters to escape the final catastrophe.

Yet Hauptmann is not always a willing disciple of naturalism. He has made several attempts to escape into the world of pure fancy, as in his *Märchen* dramas, "The Sunken Bell" and "Pippa." But pessimism accompanies his every step in the fairy world; and though the background of naturalism may not always appear, yet its blind influence is never absent, and the fate from which the hero tries to escape is the coil of the same mischievous world.

III.

But what is the significance of pessimism, of decadent pessimism, for tragedy? The once common notion that Greek tragedy revolves about the central notion of Fate needs to be clearly defined, for the Greek mind was, in its most significant manifestation, never pessimistic or fatalistic. Even in the plays of Æschylus, the notion of an overhanging fate due to an hereditary curse never banished the equally potent notion of human responsibility. The fate that overtook Agamemnon was as much a force that he set in motion by his violation of divine laws as a responsibility that he inherited from his ancestor, Pelops. And this notion of human responsibility and the ethical basis of tragedy is still more strengthened by the dramas of Sophocles. It is only when we get to the more realistic plays of Euripides that chance and caprice begin to sway the balance between divine will and human responsibility. Greek tragedy is, if nothing else, an ethical answer to the dark riddles of existence, an attempt on a grand scale, with huge crimes and abysmal suffering as its theme, to hold on even beam the scales of a rational order in the universe and of just retribution to evil doers. Fate, then, in Greek tragedy is divine justice meted out by an inflexible but rational hand. Error there must be, unwilling error perhaps, unconscious, even, at times; but its meaning is clear, man is free, in a measure at least, to make a choice in his action, but is held to a stern responsibility for his error; and clearly what is meant by ὕβρις is that the man who arrogates to himself a freedom from responsibility, as though he were a cosmic autocrat, is marked for swift retribution.

In such a notion of Fate and responsibility there is little room for pessimism or for impish capriciousness, or for a belief in lofty, silent, and unintelligent *Urmächten*. It is the very negation of all Hauptmann regards as the heart of tragedy. "Hate, revenge, the living frenzy of hate and love,* malice," all the elemental forces—these must be refined and made rational before they can become material for tragedy; and the Greek dramatists so refined them. Hauptmann's tragedies leave us uncomfortable, bewildered, shocked, in a world of anarchy, of pettiness, and indecent irrationality. In such a world there can be no room for an ethics based on any higher principle than conformity to things as they usually go, and in it we must accept as true the saying of one of the characters in "Gabriel Schillings Flucht," "Moral judgments are, of course, only ways of avoiding thought and understanding." Between the sterile doctrine of social conformity and the equally irrational doctrine of pure self-assertion, the characters in the world Hauptmann portrays must oscillate.

But how much more thrilling the horror, it might be objected, if we know not why nor whence it comes. Precisely, and in this objection we can see the motive behind all naturalism. It is deliciously thrilling, like the blundering effort to avoid promiscuous furniture in a dark and unfamiliar room. Perhaps there is a trifle more horror in watching the convulsions of Rose Bernd or Gabriel Schilling, than there would be were we to know just where and why each had offended. But tragedy is not the piling of horror upon horror; one can get that by a visit to a slaughter-house or from a newspaper's account of the battlefields of Europe; it is rather the purgation of horror that tragedy demands. It might seem a little out of date to go back to Aristotle, or even to Lessing, for our dramatic theories. But the horror in tragedy is horror not at the fate of the hero, but at his guilt. The horror is purged, rationalized, by the catastrophe that overtakes him. It is this that evens up things in the world, that points out the inflexibility of the law of ethics. There is thrill, and enough of it, in true tragedy. Modern writers have also achieved it, as Sudermann in his "Joy of Living" or "Magda," but it is a thrill for which we can assign a rational motive.

To object that in real life there is little of this rational balance of motives and effects, of wrong and justice, is to interpose an objection that is wide of the mark, and which cannot fully be met here. But a generalization is permissible. As it is the purpose of science to make external life more orderly, more intelligible, more to correspond with the demands of man's inner nature; so it is the purpose of art, and of the drama in particular, to rationalize the world of the emotions and the imagination. Naturalism, as such, is no more art than is photography; it may point out to us the defects in our lives and imaginations, and as such have practical value; but it does not add to the conquest of the irrational in human nature, and thus hearten us "to see life steadily and see it whole." One is inclined to quote the old manager's exclamation against the advocate of naturalism: "You are a rat. . . . In the garden of German art these rats are gnawing at the roots of idealism. Down, down into the dust with you!"

Like the world in which they live, the characters in Hauptmann's plays are the puppets of their caprice. Without a notion of the significance of life, they wander a bewildered path from scene to scene, only to come at last like dumb beasts to their crowning or their slaughter. It is a striking

*The Greeks never had a place for a tragedy on the theme of love.

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comment on his tragedies that scarcely one of his characters sees remotely the connection of his actions with any rational system of character development or understands the worth of restrained personality. Naked of understanding of themselves, they come into this world, and naked they leave it. It is this mental emptiness that causes Henschel to exclaim—and the passage has been commended by more than one critic—"A bad man I've come to be, only it's no fault of mine. I just, somehow, stumbled into it all. Maybe it's my fault, too. . . . Who knows? But the devil is more cunning than man. I just kept on straight ahead." And all that Siebenhaar can respond is: "There are certain fates that come upon men." Precisely. Hauptmann's characters just stumble into all their difficulties. They blindly keep on straight ahead, and fall victim to meaningless fates.

In each one of the plays the catastrophe might have been avoided by a little use of judgment, just as a missile may be dodged by a dexterous movement. An unaimed bullet catches old Hulse in "The Weavers." Young Vockerat in "Einsame Menschen" might have made a resolution and kept it, as people often do, even in real life. Gabriel Schilling was physically diseased as well as mentally and socially beset. Hannele caught a bad cold from a foolish action and had dreams as she was dying. Henschel might have looked a little more carefully at his wife's doings. And so we might go through his plays, showing that it was not bad judgment, for even bad judgment presupposes thought, but sheer stumbling blindly forward, that brings the catastrophes. In short, it is not what his characters do that makes Hauptmann's tragedies, but what happens to them; they are like children, eternally getting into trouble and having fits of nerves until the last fit carries them off.

Yet even this intellectual degradation of the characters in tragedy might be tolerated were they normal in other respects. But they dwell on the fringes of their dreams, fancies, emotional vagaries, and hallucinations. It is probably true for the mass of mankind, as Hauptmann says, that "we love dreams more than reality." But it is not normal or consistent with human nature to act as though "the power to nurse illusions is the dearest possession in the world." Yet dreams, fancies, illusions, and hallucinations are the daily viaticum of nearly all of Hauptmann's tragic characters. The tragic conflict, as in "Einsame Menschen" or "Gabriel Schillings Flucht," is not between characters who have illusions and those whose vision is clear, but between different varieties of mental vagaries. It is a diseased and disordered humanity that we are called upon to study. And here lies what I believe is the most serious charge against Hauptmann. He has a decadent fondness for pathological characters. There is a type of morbidness or of madness that possesses a degree of dignity, and hence upon occasion might be made a legitimate subject of tragedy. We instantly recall Lear, Ajax, or Cassandra. In each of these examples, however, it is not the manner of acting while the frenzy is on that is dramatically significant, but the fact that the madness did not come unawares, but was a result of a train of circumstances set in motion by an error in judgment. But the characters of the German dramatist are distinctly *infra dig*, there is an indecency in the exposure of their simple mental, moral, or physical subnormality. Hannele is a pauper child crazed by ill treatment and dreaming, as such children do, of retribution and reward. Heinrich is a bell founder crazed by the loss of his bell, dreaming of a bigger life, awaking to guilt, and dreaming of bliss in death. It seems a pity to expose their wretched weaknesses. To me it is not unlike attendance upon a clinic where the poor patient has neither the worth nor the dignity to protest against the exposure.

IV.

To object that in these portrayals of sickly characters Hauptmann has proceeded with the most delicate and accurate psychology is beside the mark. It is true that he is a psychopathologist of uncommon power. All of his characters, doubtless, act in strict accordance with their maladies. And were we making a study of the symptoms of such abnormalities we might well use these plays as an accurate textbook. But a drama is not a work of abnormal psychology, nor the stage the place to exhibit deliquescent humanity, even though the language and poetry used have tremendous carrying power.

The trouble here seems to be that Hauptmann does not distinguish between what we may call character and all the multitudinous train of actions of which a life may be composed. Character is more or less a distinctly ethical conception and has to do with conflicts of motives, the gradual predominance of certain well-marked motives, and a corresponding assigning to one's life of an end. In consequence, in real life it is frequently extremely difficult, or even impossible, to discover character. It is so much easier with the followers of naturalism to content oneself with giving acts, whatever their significance. Now this is precisely what Hauptmann has done. He has invited us to gaze on the incoherent acts of persons under a various stress of circumstances. He selects simple-minded persons, for their reactions are more certain and easy to follow; he selects diseased minds, for their reactions are more thrilling, because they are out of the ordinary run of experience. But because he can portray the actions of his *dramatis personæ* with scientific accuracy we are not justified in according him success in the portrayal of character, for that is matter of generalizations as well as of accurate observation.

In conclusion, as his generalizations on Greek tragedy would lead us to expect, Hauptmann has succeeded in missing the significance of true tragedy. He finds the Greek tragedy "stark and naïve," by which he means emotionally potent and primitive, and he has striven to give the same character to his own. His tragedies certainly are not for people with over-refined nerves, but for the hardened followers of clinics. They are emotionally potent, tremendously so, for in the simple and pathological characters he draws all powers of inhibition are absent; and they are naïve, for they return to the primitive confusion in the presence of an imminent, speechless, and remorseless unknown.

Correspondence

COLONEL ROOSEVELT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to make a belated but none the less earnest protest against your so-called review of Colonel Roosevelt's book. The article has just come under my eye.

Published as an avowedly political screed in the regular editorial columns of a periodical, it would have been so openly one-sided and ferocious as to defeat its own end. When published under your caption, "Literature," it is so grotesquely out of place as to awaken the emphatic dissent of persons who try to take the *Nation's* review columns as serious and scientific utterances. Does Mr. Roosevelt, in addition to all his other undoubted qualities, possess that art-magic which, whenever he opens his lips, causes one of the most dignified and presumably responsible publications in the United States to dissolve into fits of unmannerly and juvenile screaming? Such articles do not harm the object of attack, but they do harm the periodical that gives them a place.

William Stearns Davis.

Minneapolis, Minn., May 21.

[It is the *Nation's* practice in reviewing a book to assume that the author says what he means to say, and when upon analysis it was discovered that Mr. Roosevelt in his volume, "Fear God and Take your Own Part," presented no consistent body of views, and that, in fact, it was impossible to ascertain precisely what was his attitude towards the large problems discussed, the *Nation* did not hesitate to subject him to the sort of rational criticism which in similar case would have been meted out to any other writer. If the style of this review was somewhat heightened, that may be explained by Mr. Roosevelt's own vociferous style.—Ed. The Nation.]

THE IRISH EXECUTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To allow the letter of William Dean Howells to the *Nation* of May 18 to pass unnoticed would be unjust to the American sense of fair play. Entirely aside from whether it is accurate to call punishment vengeance or whether it is truthful to state that the late Ulster bluff against Home Rule created a state of rebellion, while murder and arson in Dublin does not create such a state (both of which may possibly be arguable), an ordinary sense of justice should prevent any one from reaching a conclusion upon so great an issue based upon reports sent in an hour of passion.

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A judgment of such violence and hatred towards the people to whom we are principally indebted for our language, our literature, our law, and our liberty is surely a matter to make the judicious grieve. When our revered master of American fiction makes an excursion into the field of facts, the only charitable verdict is to fall back on the maxim, "Ne sutor ultra crepidam."

LYNDEN EVANS.

Chicago, Ill., May 23.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Asquith Government has come in for no small degree of opprobrium and denunciation for its method of handling the recent Irish revolt. The *Nation*, among the more impartial periodicals of the country, has been as vigorous as any in this matter. In your issue of May 18 Mr. W. D. Howells appeals for spoken expression wherever the English Government's action is denounced. The writer has been somewhat amazed to find so little defence, or even sympathy, for the people who had to deal with this most unhappy affair. It is true that in some cases "extenuating circumstances" have been mentioned. England has been declared neurasthenic, hectic, and for good reason. These statements have been made, but not a semblance of regard has forthwith been paid to them. There can be no fault whatever found with the sentiment that has provoked this outburst against the ruthless execution of misguided fanatics. The heart of every one goes out to them. The justice of such sentiments as expressed by Mr. Howells may, however, well be questioned. Already—as the trial of Sir Roger Casement proceeds—it becomes more and more evident that England considers she is dealing not so much with Irish rebels as with traitors, whose machinations might well spell her ruin. The war she is involved in admittedly demands the last ounce of effort and resource of which she is capable. It were madness to contend that a rebellion in Ireland could ruin England and the empire she controls; but it were equal madness to assert that a further conspiracy with Germany would not jeopardize the existence for which England is now struggling. Let us, however, picture a like condition, or one as nearly analogous as possible, here in this country.

Let us suppose this country to be struggling for its continuance as a country with a foreign foe. The outcome of the struggle is not yet in sight. At best it can only be won by an effort beyond anything the country has as yet known. The Atlantic seaboard from Maine to Florida is hard-pressed. Suddenly news arrives that a discontented section of the country has conspired with the enemy on the Pacific Coast. Relying almost entirely upon enemy support, open rebellion has begun, whose ultimate success depends upon the betraying of the country into the enemy's hands. These men have had every known provocation for revolting against the United States. They have admittedly been unjustly treated in the past. Yet is there any one who would declare that men so ready to abandon the nation should receive clemency? To omit any act which would prevent a further recurrence of such an outbreak were worse than treachery to the millions fighting for the nation's life on the Eastern seaboard.

In this larger perspective we may find reason to hesitate before we assail the Government which even shoots down misguided men, who in quieter times might justly have been spared. It was one thing to handle with splendid magnanimity the rebellion in South Africa; it was quite another ruthlessly to crush a conspiracy hatched and nurtured in Berlin. A deterrent for all conspirators who would bring Prussian rule to Dublin would seem but reasonable justice to those striving to stamp that rule out of Belgium. The pity such conspirators deserve is quite another matter.

W. T. HOOPER.

Concord, N. H., May 23.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is just as painful to us Britishers to read the strictures of William Dean Howells upon the conduct of the British Government in the Irish business as it is to him to pronounce his judgment on the matter. It is really one on which it would be fair to suspend judgment pending the details which are promised by Mr. Asquith for the special benefit of the American public. I read in the newspapers well-authenticated accounts of unarmed English soldiers fired upon by the Irish rebels, and of the use by the murderers of "sporting guns firing flat-nosed heavy leaden bullets of the type used against big game, or rough-edged slugs, inflicting horrible wounds." Let us suspend judgment. We do not yet know whether the executed prisoners were not implicated in the infamous brutality disclosed by Sir Frederick Banbury in the House of Commons, when he alleged that "two officers and a policeman, who were motoring to Dublin, were stopped, taken, unarmed, put up against a wall, and shot."

Savagery and murder do not cease to be savagery and murder simply because they happen to be committed in pursuance of a conspiracy against the life of the nation in the most critical hour of its history, when its destiny as a nation is trembling in the balance.

B. RUSSELL.

Halifax, N. S., May 21.

ASSAULTS ON THE PRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When we remember that one of the strongest bulwarks of our liberties is a free press, it seems passing strange that the newspapers of the country apparently take no notice of two bills now before the House, the Siegel bill (H. R. 491) and the Fitzgerald bill (H. R. 6468), both introduced by New York members. Mr. Siegel wants the Postmaster-General to have the power to forbid the use of the mails to any publication that "contains any article which tends to expose any race, creed, or religion to either hatred, contempt, ridicule, or obloquy"! Would not that worthy official have a time of it!

Mr. Fitzgerald has introduced for the second time a bill that was smothered in the committee last year. He wishes to empower the Postmaster-General to exclude from the mails "books, pamphlets . . . or other publications, matter, or thing of an indecent, immoral, scurrilous character." As we already have laws provided for such "things," laws that allow the offending publisher to employ counsel and to have his case argued before a judge and jury, there is no possible valid reason for putting such tremendous and dangerous power in the hands of a single individual. The *Fatherland* has been deemed by many persons in this country to be rabidly "scurrilous" against our President; but for *one man* to have the power to suppress it would be perfectly intolerable, if we are to have a free press as one of the cornerstones of our liberties.

Many of the *Nation's* readers remember the time when Mr. Godkin was arrested time and again for his onslaughts on a corrupt organization in New York city. Mr. Godkin had his counsel and his jury, and, of course, was promptly vindicated. But suppose a Tammany sympathizer had been Postmaster-General—what then, if he alone could have suppressed the *Nation*?

It would surely seem that the papers of the country would spring so earnestly to the defence of their privileges as not to leave a ghost of a chance for such bills as Messrs. Siegel and Fitzgerald have introduced. Even license in the press would be preferable to such despotic power lodged in the hands of one man. Free discussion is essential to liberty. The discussion may be acrimonious, abusive, rancorous, unfair, malignant. If it is libellous, *appeal to the courts,* not to a Postmaster-General. Otherwise let us stand immovably by this saying of Woodrow Wilson ("The State: Government of Rome"):

"Discussion is the greatest of all reformers. It rationalizes everything it touches. It robs principles of all false sanctity and throws them back on their reasonableness. If they have no reasonableness, it ruthlessly crushes them out of existence and sets its own conclusions in their stead."

ADDISON HOGUE.

Lexington, Va., April 28.

THACKERAY AND TENNYSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note of Prof. W. L. Phelps in the *Nation* of April 20 is a quite proper rejoinder to your reviewer's criticism of Professor Lounsbury for the "fatally incomplete" reference to Tennyson's "Timbuctoo" in his "Life and Times of Tennyson." Yet it remains an assertion only, and might thus be thought inadequate. As your reviewer, too, was so completely misled, may it not be worth while putting the facts more fully before your many readers.

It was Trollope, perhaps, who first noticed the satiric skit of Thackerary in his "Life" of the latter (English Men of Letters, p. 5). He there says of the *Snob:* "He certainly wrote and published in the little paper some burlesque lines on the subject which was given for the Chancellor's prize poem of the year." But Trollope's quite exact "burlesque lines on the subject" were soon perverted. Thus Herman Merivale in his "Life of Thackeray" (Great Writers, p. 71) says: "We have it on the authority of Trollope that 'Timbuctoo' was a burlesque upon the prize poem of the year, written by Tennyson." So Charles Whibley in the Modern Writers series, p. 8, puts it quite as badly: "Timbuctoo [in the *Snob*], the parody of a prize poem, is his," that is, Thackeray's. R. H. Stoddard also perpetuates the blunder in his "Anecdotic Biographies of Thackeray and Dickens" (p. 134), when he calls Thackeray's verses "a clever skit upon the Cambridge Prize Poem." Finally, Cuthbert Bede (Edward Bradley) in *Notes and Queries,* VI, x, 418, says of the *Snob:* "It is remarkable for containing Thackeray's earliest published burlesque, which was on Tennyson's earliest published poem—his prize poem, 'Timbuctoo.'" This last antithesis contains an additional error, for of course "Timbuctoo" was not Tennyson's "earliest published poem." But all the above statements indi-

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cate that your reviewer was in numerous, if bad, company.

Turning now to the circumstances which may easily be made out, the *Snob* was published from Thursday, April 9, 1829, through eleven weekly numbers (Whibley's "Life")—Trollope saying, "I think but nine weeks"—that is, through the May or Easter term, which closes June 24. The eleventh number carried it to June 18, and another issue would have fallen on the day after the May term closes. The time of publishing Thackeray's "Timbuctoo" may also be determined with fair accuracy without reference to the *Snob* itself. The English poems for the Chancellor's medal are handed in on February 1, and Thackeray did not reach Cambridge until that month, so that he could not have competed for the prize if he had desired. On June 6 ("Memoir of Tennyson," by his son, I, 45) it was announced that Tennyson's poem had won the prize, and it was probably this which set Thackeray at work. Such we may infer from the aptness for this occasion of part of Thackeray's letter, preceding his verses in the *Snob:*

Though your name be "Snob," I trust you will not refuse this tiny "Poem of a Gownsman," which was unluckily not finished on the day appointed for delivery of the several copies of verses on "Timbuctoo."

Another undated letter, too, implies publication in May or June, probably the latter (Great Writers; "Life," p. 71):

A "poem of mine" hath appeared in a weekly periodical here published, and called the *Snob*. I will bring it home with me. In a month's time I trust to be at home.

The phrase "a month's time" makes certain that the publication was near the end of the term.

As yet, however, and for some time, the prize poem was not published. Not until July 29 did Tennyson write to Charles, afterwards Dean, Merivale, asking him to read the poem in the senate house at Cambridge, since he himself shrank from such publicity. This Merivale did "in the summer" of 1829 ("Memoir of Tennyson," I, 47). As this was the first public appearance of the prize poem, Thackeray could not have parodied it if he had wished before that time. To suppose that he was allowed to read it in manuscript and then set about a parody is unthinkable.

Besides, one who places Tennyson's poem and Thackeray's verses side by side will see that the latter cannot be called a parody of the former in any real sense. The only thing they have in common is the subject—as we should presume from this recital of the circumstances about these early bits by two famous Englishmen.

OLIVER FARRAR EMERSON.

Western Reserve University, May 1.

DR. ANGELL AND FRANCIS WAYLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been very much interested in your admirable editorial on "Angell and his Fellows" in your issue of April 6. The quadrumvirate whom you name is certainly a remarkable one. You very justly trace the influence of Dr. Angell and the University of Michigan, which was chiefly his creation, on the various State universities of the Northwest. But behind Angell was one of the other great American presidents worthy to be bracketed with Mark Hopkins, of Williams—Francis Wayland, who in 1850 introduced what was called the "New System" at Brown, by which the sciences and modern languages were placed in the same rank as the classics and mathematics, and at the same time introduced a moderate choice of electives. Angell was one of his pupils and deeply impressed by his personality.

When I entered Brown in 1855, Wayland, who had just resigned, was succeeded by Sears. Angell was a member of the faculty during all of my college course, was my teacher, and, I may add, through his great kindness I became his protégé while a student, and his warm friend throughout his useful life, just closed.

In one of Angell's addresses at Brown (it may have been before the alumni, but I think it was a Phi Beta Kappa oration), he traced the influence of Wayland through his work at Brown on the educational system of the entire country, but more especially of the Northwest in the two particulars which the "New System" had introduced. While during Dr. Sears's administration much of Wayland's work was undone, yet the influence that it had exerted persisted and was a large factor in bringing about the then impending change in our entire educational system.

W. W. KEEN.

Philadelphia, April 10.

Notes from the Capital

HERBERT SPENCER HADLEY.

Although most of the Favorite Sons are frankly preparing to take advantage of the open season for booms at the Republican National Convention, we in Washington do not hear much mention of Herbert Spencer Hadley, of Missouri. As lately as in January of the present year, however, his chief political spokesman at home took pains to announce that, because Hadley was not making an active canvass for the Presidential nomination, it would not do to overlook him. "If he goes to the Convention," said this authority, "he will be named a member of the platform committee. This will give him an opening wedge, and the delegates will do the rest." Newspaper readers who could recall the circumstances of Bryan's first nomination were doubtless struck with something in the prophecy suggestive of history's trick of repeating itself. Practical politicians, on the other hand, generally consider that Hadley's greatest chance came—and went—at Chicago four years ago, when, but for the determination of the Old Guard that Taft should be nominated at any cost, the Convention could, at one stage, have been stampeded for Hadley as the best way out of a bad muddle. He presented a striking and attractive picture as he stood there at the front of the platform, a champion of Progressivism and a supporter of Roosevelt, his clean-cut profile and his lithe and trimly clad figure contrasting vividly with the rough-hewn and rather dowdy group behind him against which they were projected; and his calm, good-tempered, dignified manner of listening to all his adversaries had to say, and then meeting argument with argument, without resort to invidious personalities, made an excellent impression upon the judicially minded.

Hadley first caught the attention of the people outside of his own State by his successful prosecution of the Standard Oil Trust when he was Attorney-General of Missouri. He had to tackle as witnesses for the defence two of the most capable men the Standard had in its service, John D. Archbold and H. H. Rogers, and the expectation was widespread that they would make short work of this boy-faced little lawyer of thirty-two. Archbold assumed an air of sullen defiance. He was obstinate rather than aggressive, which perhaps made it harder to fight him, and he was undisguisedly contemptuous of the State whose laws he had transgressed and of all its machinery for asserting its authority. He reached a point, in the course of the examination through which Hadley put him, where he seemed likely to forget his own name, so little did he appear able to do towards helping the prosecutor dig out the essential facts desired. Rogers became distinctly offensive with his jocose and self-important style. He went so far as to assure Hadley and the spectators that he didn't care what the Supreme Court of Missouri wanted, quite ignorant or unmindful of the atmosphere of popular hostility such an attitude was bound to create in the State whose chief tribunal was thus disparaged. But before the trial was ended, both Trust magnates discovered that they were no match for the young lawyer they had begun by despising. The State won its case, the domination of the Standard was hopelessly broken there, the independent oil companies blossomed forth, and made their competition effective by the lowering of prices in the local market, and the crippled tyrant was glad enough to be allowed to stay in the field on about any terms the State saw fit to impose.

Of course, after that, the least the people of Missouri could do was to promote Hadley to the Governorship. In his new office he made a creditable record, and naturally became a Presidential possibility, since Missouri had twice shown that with a Republican candidate who suited her she was willing now and then to break away from her normal Democratic allegiance. It was with no slight regret that some of the national leaders of his party saw him join the movement to override precedent and refuse Taft a second term in favor of giving Roosevelt a third. Having made his fight for the Progressive chief, however, and lost it, Hadley acted as an experienced advocate acts when he has been defeated in court. He simply asked: "If we can't have the candidate we hoped for, what is the next best thing?" And he concluded that, as a choice between his old party, with all its reactionary tendencies, and a third party which was predoomed to defeat, he had better remain a Republican and push his proposed reforms from within rather than from without. On the whole, he reasoned, there was enough in the old party that was worth saving to justify such a decision. So, although he abated nothing of his criticism of the trend of things under the Administration of President Taft, he took part in the campaign of 1912 as a "regular," laying special emphasis in his public utterances upon the fact that Taft had declared for Presidential primaries, as opposed to the current practice of turning over the government of the party to a group of self-appointed managers. If he does play a prominent part in the coming Convention, but fail of nomination to the first place on the ticket, it is wholly within the range of possibility that he may be named for the second place; and if he is, he may be trusted to make a pretty good showing for himself.

TATTLER.

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Literature

THE AFFLICTED LAND.

A Short History of Belgium. By Léon van der Essen. The University of Chicago Press. $1 net.

A phœnix from the ashes of Louvain! After the great University had become food for the flames of a war fire and its priceless treasures rubbish, the professor of history, Léon van der Essen, was invited to give a course of lectures on the history of Belgium in the University of Chicago during the first quarter of 1915. It is on this course that the book before us is based.

The author declares that his "'Short History of Belgium' is not a 'war book,' and cannot be placed among those books classed as war literature." The matter of the thirteen chapters shows the appropriateness of this remark, for the narrative closes with the death of King Leopold II and the accession in 1910 of "Albert I, King of the Belgians, knight without fear and without reproach"—as the dedication reads.

Dr. Van der Essen divides Belgian history into nine periods, the titles of which we condense: From the Romans to Charlemagne; feudalism; the communes; the Burgundian centralization; the Spanish rule; the Austrian domination; the French régime; the Dutch rule and the revolution of 1830; and the period of national independence.

A book written by a scholar under such remarkable circumstances possesses for the critic interested in and familiar with the backgrounds of the long jealousies and rivalries of the Dutch and Belgians fascinations of a peculiar sort. Between these two people, united for centuries, there has existed a state of feeling much like that between "the British" and "the Americans"; for in 1830 the Belgians were "rebels," had a "war of the revolution," won their independence, and then became rivals, both in economics and politics, with their quondam masters. The fact that while differing in religion and in industrial life, there was uniformity in language, at least in the northern half of Belgium, added to, rather than diminished, the points of friction. That "Rotterdam bombarded Antwerp," in order selfishly to keep trade in the Maas instead of the Scheldt, is not forgotten by one fed on the "manna" of household tradition, even when the taste of "the new corn" of the hospitable Holland of 1914-16 is enjoyed. The water-marks of this, shall we say, harmless emotion, are patent in the light of scrutiny. Throughout this work, we never hear of "The Dutch Republic," but only of the "United Provinces," and the Union of Utrecht in 1579 is "so-called." Other little tricks of speech and idiom betray amusingly the subjectivity of one initiated in the homely, intimate life of the two nations —both so genial to the American.

The style of the author is, for a foreigner, remarkably clear, strong, and of rapid movement. For writing in English, so ably and charmingly, the author deserves all praise. Occasional little slips, though commendably few, occur, such as "the imposition of the Dutch language upon all functionaries . . . without granting time to *learn* [*sic*] it to those who could not speak it" (p. 151). "William the Silent" is regularly referred to, as if he were known while living by this popular title, whereas the late Professor Fruin, of Leyden, has shown that it was almost certainly posthumous and unused by the Prince's contemporaries. Few Dutchmen could accept as their view of fact and truth what is said on page 115.

Dr. Van der Essen perhaps leads all authors in making clear the bi-lingual and di-ethnic situation which has existed since late Roman times. At the Frankish invasion the march of these northerners was "stopped by a dense and extended forest, the Sylva Carbonaria (Coal Wood), which in southwestern and central Belgium constituted the continuation of the forests of the Ardennes. Behind the curtain of that forest, the oldest inhabitants of the country, the Gallo-Romans, remained free from oppression by the invaders and retained their Latin culture and civilization." Thus developed separately the Flemings of the North and the Walloons of the South. The "coal wood" disappeared long ago, but the fifth-century line is still drawn, and is more or less felt and visible. The geographical situation reminds the author of the hills of Wales and Cornwall in Britain, while the ethnic and linguistic distinctions are much the same, or even greater.

In his general treatment, Dr. Van der Essen follows the best native historians and the English Ensor, but he is amply able to control his authorities, for he has himself done much research work in Italy, of which he has made publication, while his fulness and accuracy light up many points in the history of England and of more than one Continental country. In discussing feudalism he is not clear as to whether he regards this form of society—as some writers best acquainted with the subject do, who have studied it as illustrated all over the world—as a stage of progress in the evolution of the race, or simply as local decay of the central power. He handles ably the question of neutrality and alliances during the period of the communes, and shows also how the Dukes of Burgundy first made unity. Under them "Belgium as a united political body was now for the first time a reality." We know that the Burgundian court system—by which the local nobles were, in the interest of centralization, called from their distant domains and to leave their sports and hunting, to receive titles and offices at court, near the person of their suzerain—has spread and prevailed in Europe. This was but one of many lines of the influence of Belgium upon other nations.

Dr. Van der Essen is in harmony with the best recent scholarship, in both of the Low Countries, in awarding praise to Charles V for ordaining "that the Netherlands or Seventeen Provinces should forever be considered as an undiminished whole." He fails, however, to refer to or to develop what is of high interest to our people, viz., the fact that "The American Doctrine of Judicial Supremacy," on which a scholarly volume has been recently written, was Netherlandish before it was American. The Supreme Court of the Netherlands was the Raad van Staat, formed in 1531 by Charles V and consisted, as Wagenaar tells us, of "the greatest of the land." It was a vital necessity, because each of the seventeen provinces guarded each so jealously its rights. In the case of this weak but real federalism, final supremacy could rest only with the judiciary. Even in the time of Margaret the Regent, the members of the Raad van Staat had admission even to the Geheime Raad, or Secret Council. Motley, yielding too much to the opportunity of witticisms, rather obscures than illuminates this fact and principle. Though this court declined under Philip II, it was reconstituted in the northern Netherlands after the Dutch Declaration of Independence in 1581. Being enlarged and virtually refounded in 1651, it has continued as an integral part of the Dutch Constitution to this day, its title, in modern spelling, being Raad van State (Stat-è). Dr. Van der Essen does tell us, however (p. 151), that one of the principal reasons for the revolt and secession of Belgium from Holland, in 1830, was that the "Haute Cour, or Supreme Court of Justice," was removed from Brussels "and established in Holland."

In discussing the points so long and often in controversy, which, because they involve religious and other feelings that, like volcano lava, cool slowly, Dr. Van der Essen shows a fine sense of the claims upon an historian of accuracy and judicial calm. Sectarian orators and writers must drop the time-dishonored statement that in the Reformation (variously called "the troubles" by Catholics, and "the struggle for spiritual freedom" by Protestants), the Netherlands suffered the loss of "one hundred thousand martyrs for the gospel." Dr. Blok scarcely allows more than two thousand genuine cases. Van der Essen gives six thousand as the number of "victims." However, instead of the flock of "black locusts" in the form of Jesuits descending on the land, after the accession of the Archduke and Infanta, as seen from one point of view, we have the picture of a gracious visitation of these orders (p. 122).

While not pretending to glance at the Belgium of 1914-16, the author has brought the history of his native country into focus with the events leading to the determined assertion of the nation to maintain its life. On the subjects of Belgium's guaranteed neutrality, the laws of nations in the case, and what was "the scrap of paper" so often talked about, the author is clear, full, and judicially accurate.

The interesting question of the Brabant

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Revolution, of the Belgian revolt against Austrian oppression in 1789, and the influence of the United States of America (whether under the Articles of Confederation of 1777, or of the Constitution of 1789) in causing the formation of "The Republic of the United States of Belgium," is modestly left untouched, since the question "has not yet been studied in this light." Here is another inviting subject for the industrious scholar.

A page is given to an epilogue and one to bibliography, but, incredible though it may seem, there is no index. For the poise, reserve, and scholarship of the author, one can have naught but praise; while the brevity, clearness, and proportion, shown in this excellent work, make it inexcusable in Americans of ordinary leisure and intelligence not to know Belgium and her problems in war and peace.

CURRENT FICTION.

Old Judge Priest. By Irvin Cobb. New York: George H. Doran Co.

According to Mr. Cobb's publishers, he "has climbed to the top of the literary ladder . . . is a unique figure among American literarymen to-day." So might it be said that Mr. Charlie Chaplin is a unique figure among stagemen; whether he has climbed to the top of the dramatic ladder *or not might be another question.* In fact, Mr. Cobb may more fairly be called a unique figure among American magazinemen. At best, he is an accomplished journeyman in the direction of letters; at worst, he is a vaudeville artist in print. He has a genuinely comic touch, and is always sure of his laughs. He can develop an amusing turn out of the slightest materials. He possesses the vaudeville asset of a ludicrous physique, and exploits it to the utmost, with the aid of highly-paid cartoonists. He will discourse as readily of his own anatomy as of the war in Europe—has, in short, the official egotism and shamelessness of the professional funny man. All this is a natural development of his long experience as a newspaper and magazine humorist—or "kidder," to use the word Mr. John Kendrick Bangs accepts as fit for such functionaries. But Mr. Irvin Cobb has, beneath his mountebanking, qualities of a humorist in the deeper sense. They are best expressed in the series of stories with the old ex-Confederate judge as their central figure. The present volume continues the chronicles which in "Back Home" endeared Judge Priest to many readers. His "fair little city" had its model, no doubt, in the town of Paducah, Kentucky, where Mr. Cobb was born and "raised." It is as distinctly individualized and projected in these tales as Mrs. Deland's "Old Chester," and, of course, the old judge is in a way analogous to Dr. Lavendar—each the benign old guardian of his little community. The problems Judge Priest has to settle for his constituents are more often matters of practical adroitness than, as with Dr. Lavendar, of moral crisis or crux. But the Judge also is a figure of sentiment, and it is an emotional humor which underlies every one of these tales. The pathos of Confederate memories, of feminine weakness, and age, and every sort of under-doggishness—this sets the key for Judge Priest's sympathies and exploits. The stories are rather long short stories, and for the most part neatly "plotted" in order to provide the emotional jolt towards the end which magazines now require. The cleverest of them in this respect is "The Life of an Ant," in which the reader's curiosity is carried along in a series of waves, continually led on to expect something of a climax which proves to be but another step in the direction of the real dénouement. This writer has a true style, a way of saying things which expresses himself. It may be slovenly often, but it seldom fails to go straight for the business in hand.

Seven Miles to Arden. By Ruth Sawyer. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is a delightful and not too absurd little romance, involving a lovely little Irish actress and her odd quest. She has been stranded in a hospital at the moment of the failure of an American tour, and comes out penniless and without plans. Fate at once casts in her way a fantastic object—the pursuit of a young man whom she has never seen. He is open to accusation of having committed forgery. His betrothed deserts him: our Patsy's object is to let him know that she for one believes in him. She pursues him by taxicab and train, learns that he may be found at Arden, sets out therefor, and begins her adventures proper. These include a sharing of the road with a ragged wandering tinker, who is presently, and to her mind lamentably, revealed as a gentleman in disguise. It is partly through his machinations that she seems never to get nearer than "seven miles to Arden." At last, however, she reaches Arden, in the nick of time for the part of Rosalind in a performance of "As You Like It," which, somewhat miraculously, is to be given on a private estate there. Near by dwells a dying rich man, father of the youth whom she has pursued. Patsy does such marvels as Rosalind that a manager on the spot promises her the run of Broadway. But, of course, she is too good for that, romantically speaking, and we need only discover that the son of the rich man is the object of her mission and is the pseudo-tinker as well, to approach the "kiss-curtain" of a very pretty little performance.

Frey and His Wife. By Maurice Hewlett. New York: Robert M. McBride & Co.

Mr. Hewlett is always at his best with graceful trifles wrought out of the past. His peculiar quality appears if we compare him with a writer like William Morris. The tale of Gunnar and Frey's Wife (which might have been a better title) resembles the kind of material Morris liked to deal with. But Morris often did it with a kind of heavy artlessness, a determined fidelity to his mediæval or Northern atmosphere. He tried to do such a thing as might actually have been done at some remote period. Mr. Hewlett strives rather to produce an illusion of contact with the past—all the time, with sly touches, reminding us of modernity. His archaism does not labor at mechanical accuracy; it is rather a matter of syntax and rhythm than of diction. And while Morris presented his ancients as the stark, literal fellows they were, Mr. Hewlett invests them with humor of a rather flexible if half-inarticulate sort. This chronicle of Gunnar of Trontheim, of Ogmund Dint, who wrongs him and causes him to become an outlaw; of his adventures on the journey through the wilderness and over the boundary into Sweden; of his encounter with the wooden god Frey and the maiden called his wife; and the romance which ensues—all this is such stuff as the writer handles with most skill. In such outlandish and obsolete setting he encases an idyl of rare purity and charm. Somehow, by that touch of true if slender magic which is his best gift, he renders us stout Gunnar and his strange-found Sigrid as a very human and lovable pair—a pair as engaging and even endearing as those forest lovers with whom Mr. Hewlett first won us. Whatever we may think of his style, it is evidently his, for better or worse. Its quaintness is an obstacle in such attempts at the relatively modern, as "Half-way House," "Mrs. Lancelot," or "Bendish." But in his tales of the present type we lose all sense of artificiality or affectation, and enjoy a manner without feeling it to be a mannerism.

THE SPANISH CONQUEST.

The Mastering of Mexico: Told After One of the Conquistadores and Various of His Interpreters. By Kate Stephens. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

One of the most interesting and picturesque periods of Mexican history is treated in Miss Stephens's volume. Opposite the title-page is a portrait of Bernal Diaz del Castillo, of whom the author says that it is upon his "Historia Verdadera de la Conquista de la Nueva-España" that her narrative is founded. Her book is, in fact, a condensed and abbreviated translation of the work by Diaz that tells of the Conquest of New Spain.

Several books have recently borne witness to a revived interest in Bernal Diaz del Castillo and his remarkable book, of which one by R. B. C. Graham came out too late to be taken into account by Miss Stephens. Bernal Diaz, one of the chief soldiers under Cortes in the memorable conquest, wrote to record the share which he and the other soldiers had had in those exploits, especially to offset the history by Gomara, in which the credit to Cortes was exaggerated to the exclusion of all others. This Diaz did about the year 1568, and al-

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though the book circulated among historians in manuscript, the first published version had undergone treatment at the hands of Padre Alonso Remon before it appeared in 1632. This was the version which was repeated in many editions and was the source of all the older translations. A French translation, beautiful in typography as well as in style, was the work of the poet, José M. de Heredia; and until recently the most scholarly discussion, with a full complement of maps and illustrative materials, was the work of D. Jourdanet, which reached its second edition at Paris in 1877. The work has particularly attracted the attention of English men of letters, and although Prescott underestimated its importance because of the interpolations of Padre Remon, he relied in great measure upon it. A notable translation into English was "The True History of the Conquest of Mexico," by Maurice Keatinge, in 1800, and another in 1844, the chief source for Miss Stephens, was done by John Graham Lockhart.

The interpolations and inconsistencies of the published version were early noted, and the book has, therefore, depended until recently on its literary merits. The original work, however, was discovered in the archives of Guatemala, where Diaz had ultimately settled and composed it, and D. Genaro García brought it out a few years ago in the City of Mexico. Since then the whole work has been translated and brought out in an admirable edition from this authentic Spanish original by Mr. A. P. Maudslay, for the Hakluyt Society. Last year Mr. R. B. Cunninghame Graham produced his "Bernal Diaz del Castillo," and now Miss Stephens's book appears.

One of the chief criticisms to which Miss Stephens's book is open is its brevity. She does not make clear just how much comes from Diaz, but it appears that her work is almost wholly a condensation and abbreviation of the conquistador's tale. Not only does she condense extremely, but she omits nearly all that precedes and follows the narrative of the actual conquest of the City of Mexico. The result is in this way somewhat unsatisfactory, for if the aim of this new book is to retell the story of the conquest, that object was not fully attained in simply giving the bare facts of Diaz's narrative, squeezing out most of the illuminating digressions, with all their color and life. The purpose of Diaz was to defend the glory of himself and his fellows in the adventure, and in doing this he gives us an intimate knowledge of himself, of Cortes, and of all the band of Spanish conquerors. The special grievance of these men was that they not only lost any share in the profit, but even in the fame of the exploit, through the exclusive renown of their leader. Diaz does not stint the praise of his captain, but it was essential to his programme that the narrative of their glory should be followed by the account of their subsequent sorrows after the conquest. Again, the element of intrigue, of plot and scheming, which formed so large a part of the history of the conquest requires the elaboration of Diaz to be fully appreciated. This element, due largely to the excessive individualism of the Castilians, explains in great measure the success of the Spaniards in subduing with a handful of soldiers great semi-civilized nations in the New World; but it also caused the disastrous ends of most of their individual careers and the eventual collapse of the Spanish colonial governments. Most of this is lost in Miss Stephens's version.

The edition of the Hakluyt Society, except for its bulk, made unnecessary another critical edition and translation of the work simply on account of the differences from the version of Padre Remon in the recovered original. As Mr. Graham well says, "These alterations and interpolations do not in any way affect the interest of the book as a whole, and it still remains one of the most interesting in the possession of mankind. What they do is to exaggerate numbers, disfigure proper names, and now and then leave out and sometimes to interpolate a phrase or two."

The scholarly attention already paid to the work of Bernal Diaz, then, hardly required the attention of Miss Stephens. For literary qualities she seems to esteem Lockhart's translation. It was such adventures of the Spaniards that inspired the great undertakings of Purchas and Hakluyt by way of emulation; and for comprehension of the epic spirit in which both Englisn and Spanish discoverers set forth no subsequent translation has touched the work of Maurice Keatinge. The broad and rich style of that translation, amounting at times to a paraphrase, gives us an almost Elizabethan equivalent of the vigorous, manly Spanish of Diaz. The sharp, exact translations of later writers give us the bare themes of the conqueror's thoughts, but Keatinge transposed the whole composition, with all the splendid harmonies of the golden days of discovery. The next step in the present study of Bernal Diaz would, therefore, perhaps be a new edition of Keatinge, with notes which should correct his mistakes and supply additional information without sacrificing his incomparable merits.

Except for one plate, facing page 158, all the illustrations to Miss Stephens's "Mastering of Mexico" are repeated from traditional sources. Even of paintings and monuments easily accessible, new cuts were not prepared. The reports of the Smithsonian Institution and other works offer abundant materials for illustration; the edition of the Hakluyt Society contained good engravings of some of the paintings and early maps. The lithographs, however, reproduced in half-tone, such as that of a temple, facing page 98 of "The Mastering of Mexico," are not quite old enough to be of antiquarian interest in themselves, but they are, on the other hand, old-fashioned enough to be unsatisfactory for half-tone reproduction when good photographs are easily obtainable.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

The Administration of President Hayes. By John W. Burgess. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 net.

After the lapse of forty years it ought to be possible for the American public to take a fairly dispassionate view of some of the incidents of the Reconstruction era over which contemporary opinion and sentiment were hopelessly divided; and Dr. Burgess makes out a very good case for the legitimacy of Mr. Hayes's title to the Presidency by connecting it with the general question of the relations of the States to matters vitally affecting the conduct of the Federal Government. It was, as he shows, the constitutional right of the Legislature in every State to determine how its Presidential Electors should be appointed. Before 1876 the practice had become universal of having Electors chosen by popular vote, with sundry differences of detail in the methods of counting the ballots cast for them and declaring the results. An essential point still unsettled, however, was as to how, and by whom, the returns should be counted and the total result declared after the certificates from the States had been received in Washington. The two houses of Congress finding themselves unable to agree on this, they were quite within their rights in submitting their dispute to arbitration by a commission created for the purpose.

Of the charge of inconsistency often flung at Mr. Hayes for accepting office practically at the hands of a group of returning boards set up as part of the emergency administration in States lately engaged in insurrection against the Federal authority, yet by almost his first official act pulling the props out from underneath the whole reconstruction system in the South, his advocate disposes by showing that in the latter instance he was merely executing his plain constitutional duty as President as soon as he was in a position to do so. This involved issue is explained in a non-technical, almost conversational style which will render it intelligible to many readers who would be embarrassed by the phraseology of a legal brief or the citation of authorities in a standard history. The unconventional method employed is due to the fact that this volume is made up of a course of four lectures delivered at Kenyon College, the alma mater of Mr. Hayes. The same circumstance will account also for the oratorical element injected into the text at intervals, and for the eulogistic note observable everywhere. Especially is this emphasized by the writer's neglect of any discussion of the approval of the Arrears of Pensions act, which brought down a deluge of criticism upon Mr. Hayes's head, and for which he never, so far as we are aware, offered other than a sentimental reason.

Most of us had forgotten that President Hayes had a Mexican problem to contend with. Dr. Burgess contrasts his course, in-

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ferentially at least, with that of President Wilson, to the latter's disparagement:

Mr. Hayes was no more pleased with the way Diaz came to the Presidency than was Mr. Wilson with the supposed or assumed complicity of Huerta in the killing of Madero, and there were the same violations of, and dangers to, American interests, and the same boundary infractions by Mexican marauders to be dealt with. But Mr. Hayes was a practical statesman, of refined manners, and he had at his council-table in the Department of Foreign Affairs a rather indifferent politician, indeed, but the best international lawyer in the country, and, while the Administration "waited watchfully" for Diaz to re-establish order at the centre, and threw nothing in the nature of ideal Democratic principles in his way, and extended no aid to his adversaries, it sent Gen. Ord and the soldiers to the Rio Grande and instructed him to protect our boundary, and, if necessary, to pursue those infracting it into Mexico and punish them and recapture stolen property, with the result that Diaz became firmly established and universally commanding, and to Mexico was vouchsafed thirty-five years of such peace and prosperity as it had never before enjoyed and, I fear, never will again.

For Mrs. Hayes, as for her husband, Dr. Burgess evinces an admiration which sometimes carries him into extravagance, as in his closing paragraph: "Taken all in all, the historian can say, conscientiously and without exaggeration, that the finest examples of genuine American manhood and womanhood who ever occupied the White House of the nation were Rutherford Birchard and Lucy Webb Hayes."

SECRET DIPLOMACY.

Democracy and Diplomacy: A Plea for Popular Control of Foreign Policy. By Arthur Ponsonby, M.P. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd. 2s. 6d. net.

Those who have most at heart the interests of humanity and the progress of democracy conceive the European struggle not only as a thing of fear and horror, but also as a mournful calamity, because the old conflict with ignorance and poverty must give way, and all hope of social reform and amelioration be suspended indefinitely. The author of this little volume, who has formerly written about the degradation exerted by possession of property and about the decline of aristocracy, is one of a number of ardent enthusiasts who, looking much into the future, not so much into the present, and little at the past, believe above all in the fundamental and general excellence of democracy, and explain the failure of the present and the hope of the future by the depression or the extension of democratic ideals.

Those of the school to which Mr. Ponsonby belongs ascribe to the mass of people, potentially at any rate, the generous and fine feelings which glow in their own hearts, and are convinced that democracy not only realizes how little it gains and how much it loses in war, but that democracy is essentially pacific, so that if only it had control of foreign affairs, there would be altogether less likelihood of wars ever taking place. They abhor secret diplomacy, which they think has survived from days when the upper class alone constituted government; they decry control of diplomacy by this class as the last and worst remnant of autocracy; there is little, they say, that need be secret about conducting foreign affairs; and they declare that there is much that would be better understood by councillors from the ranks of the people, inasmuch as only they comprehend the ideals of that democracy whose progress makes for the betterment of the world. Finally, they look forward to no lasting international settlement until the democracies of various nations assume control of diplomatic business and deal with one another sympathetically in respect of common interests of humanity.

Such ideas are inspired by altruistic feeling and nobility of heart, but it is our opinion, after reading treatises on this subject, that either the difficulties verge towards impracticability, or else as yet there is little more than hope and desire. Usually the notion is stated and present conditions deplored, but not much is given to explain how the situation may be altered. And so it is with this book, though here the author, more than others, does propound some parts of his plan. In England, he thinks that entrance into the diplomatic service should be the result of freer competition; that the Foreign Office vote should be more fully discussed each year in the Commons; that no treaty should be drawn up without Parliamentary sanction given to its parts and afterwards to its formal ratification; that no commitment with a foreign Power should be entered upon without express consent of Parliament; that without such consent war should not be declared; that the Foreign Secretary should make periodical statements in the country, and the people be taken more into his confidence; and, above all, that the House of Commons should control the Secretary through the supervision of a Committee of Foreign Affairs. The author is far from believing that the Secretary should not actually carry on diplomatic business, and also that this should not, when necessary, be done in secret; but it is monstrous, he thinks, that a Minister, who has come to be almost uncontrolled in the state, should in secrecy and without restraint have power to commit a whole people to courses which may involve untold suffering and disaster, of which they have not approved, and of which they have previously known very little. Mr. Ponsonby seems, however, to underestimate the obstacles to be surmounted in avoiding this, and makes no adequate explanation of how the more delicate part of the control is to be exercised; though it is only fair to say that he expressly states the book to be nothing but a preliminary study of the question.

There are useful appendices of documents and reports relating to the subject, particularly one which explains procedure in some of the other countries.

Notes

Harper & Brothers announce for early publication "A Diplomat's Wife in Mexico," by Edith O'Shaughnessy.

"Principal English Plays," edited by R. G. Martin and John S. P. Tatlock, is announced for early publication by the Century Co.

Doubleday, Page & Company announce the publication of the following volumes: "Wild Animal Ways," by Ernest Thompson Seton; "Tennis for Women," by Molla Bjurstedt; the "Work and Play Books" (eleven volumes); "Scouting with Kit Carson," by Everett T. Tomlinson; "The Mothers," by George Hirschfeld (in the Drama League Series of Plays).

Assuming that it was worth while to write a book about G. K. Chesterton, we may readily concede that Mr. Julius West has performed his self-imposed task pleasantly and acceptably in "G. K. Chesterton: A Critical Study" (Dodd, Mead; $2). Mr. Chesterton is an author so talked of, his methods are so familiar, and his personality has become so much of a tradition that there is little for a critic to tell his readers which they do not already know. Mr. West takes a sane view of his subject, which is sympathetic, but at the same time genuinely critical. He emphasizes rightly Chesterton's most valuable contribution to the literature of his age. Although our author does not say this in so many words, that contribution consists more in what Chesterton has stood for than in anything that he has written: he typified, as probably no other author has, the reaction against those arid years of decadence at the end of the Victorian era which saw the so-called æsthetic movement. From Wilde and Beardsley and Dowson and the rest of the weary gang, from the unspeakable boredom of the Yellow Book, Chesterton turned in revolt to the common, even the vulgar, but certainly the wholesome, things of life. That of late years he has disappointed the hopes raised by his most brilliant work, "Orthodoxy," should not be allowed to obscure that service. Much of the subsequent disappointment Mr. West attributes to the influence of Chesterton's *alter ego,* Mr. Hilaire Belloc. Certainly the two, politically, have strayed into such a maze that it is highly probable that they themselves do not know where they are and it is quite impossible for others to discover them. But in the war Mr. West has hopes that Chesterton may have found salvation. He writes before the publication of his subject's remarkable *tour de force,* "The Crimes of England," but in that book he would undoubtedly find confirmation of his conclusion based on the poem, "Blessed Are the Peacemakers," written at the outbreak of war, that the Germans have restored Chesterton to England, or rather England to Chesterton. Particularly since he severed his connection with the *Daily News,* he had fallen to cursing at large, and had almost persuaded himself that he hated his own people. It is to the Germans he gives thanks—

> Who have no faith a man could mourn,
> Nor freedom any man desires;
> But in a new clean light of scorn
> Close up the quarrel with my sires;
>
> Who bring my English heart to me,
> Who mend me like a broken toy;
> Till I can see you fight and flee,
> And laugh as if I were a boy.

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A merit of Mr. West's book is the copious quotation, particularly from the poems. In this connection may we approve an opinion which we believe has been expressed before, but which Mr. West does not mention, that there is one field which Chesterton would find ideal for his talents—his whimsical fancy, his keen satire, his astonishing facility in verse-making—that is, comic opera. If he could only come upon a collaborator, the laurels of Gilbert and Sullivan might be revived.

The title of the first of the nine essays in Miss Agnes Repplier's "Counter-Currents" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25 net) gives the gist of the whole volume. It is "the cost of modern sentiment" which she has set herself to estimate. Her views are of particular interest as representing an outlook which for the moment is almost eclipsed. With a sturdiness which is apt just now to be somewhat slightingly labelled Mid-Victorian, she examines the several prominent issues of the day. To her the primary object of our prisons is not to regenerate, but to protect society by preventing crime; she looks with skepticism upon a minimum wage as a safeguard of chastity; touching on "war madness," she remarks: "To prate about the wickedness of war without drawing a clear line of demarcation between aggressive and defensive warfare, between violating a treaty and upholding it, is to lose our mental balance, to substitute sentiment for truth. The very wrongness of the one implies logically the rightness of the other." She concedes to men engaged in war higher motives than a love of fighting, and insists that "to write as though battle were a game, played by men at the expense of women, is childish and irrational." Under the circumstances it is natural that leading feminists of the country are objects of her attack. Nor is Miss Repplier content to rely entirely on sentiment in dealing with the question of immigration. "It is a part," she says, "of the unreality of modern sentimentalism that we should have a strong sense of duty towards all the nations of the world except our own." And she objects to "a certain condescension" in immigrants, as if the purpose of this country were still to serve merely as an asylum for the downtrodden of Europe. Her impatience overflows also at the intention in many quarters to remove sturdy discipline from education, as well as at the tendency to treat a child not first of all as a child, but as "a future mother" or a "coming citizen." Unlike the run of people to-day, she attaches no particular weight to the deliverances on all manner of topics of a person who has attained prominence in some small field of endeavor. Thus without reverence she subjects to rational criticism the outgivings of such publicists as Miss Jane Addams and Miss Helen Keller. This process is necessary, she holds, in an age when too many of us believe what we want to believe.

As all of these essays appeared, in their original form, in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and have been quoted widely, it is not necessary to expound Miss Repplier's views at greater length; nor need we attempt at this late hour to characterize the style of one who is recognized as a distinguished essayist. Our readers may turn to this volume confident that they will find in it discussions marked by the constant prick of thought and an urbanity which is the result of a rich life and wide reading.

"Nights," by Elizabeth R. Pennell (Lippincott; $3 net), is a savory book of personal reminiscence. The play time of a literary woman was naturally the evening, and Mrs. Pennell made the most of the evenings of herself and others at Rome, Venice, London, and Paris. With her artist husband she was in the thick of the revolt that centred upon the personalities of Henley and Whistler. First and last most of the ablest artists and many of the oddities of London came to frequent her London salon. R. A. M. Stevenson, Aubrey Beardsley, and Phil May as *habitués* may suggest the catholicity of the "Thursdays." Mrs. Pennell reviews these great days with tact and amenity. It cannot be said that the gift of pungent portraiture is hers, or she may be too discreet to exercise the art unreservedly. Or, again to refine, she is more successful in suggesting the general climate that a person creates than in hitting off the betraying particularities of walk and conversations. An excellent case in point is the extended and delightful appreciation of Henry Harland, one of the choice things in the book. The pages devoted to Aubrey Beardsley are equally good. Throughout the method is to tell you about the person in the manner of good talk. The Boswellian gift of giving you the person bodily is absent. Of its sort the book is delightful, and it is very just. The epic simplicity of Duveneck and the rich whimsicality of Vedder receive their due meed. There are some ten portraits, illustrations, several rare, most of them by and of the friends who are treated in the text. None is more ingratiating than Beardsley's sketch of Henry Harland. It confirms the "character" which Mrs. Pennell gives Beardsley against the diabolism which was inputed to him and which he himself at times paraded.

In "Artists and Thinkers" (Longmans; $1.25) Louis William Flaccus presents six cases which illustrate his theme that the artist is primarily a thinker. Rodin, Maeterlinck, and Wagner represent various self-conscious phases of the pure artist. Tolstoy and Nietzsche may be regarded as mixed types, philosophy and morals tending in them to abate the pure artist. Hegel, whose æstheticism is brilliantly analyzed, reverses the case. He is less the thinking artist than a thinker impelled into art through the need of coherent and symmetrical generalization. Professor Flaccus conducts his analysis neatly, and often felicitously. Sometimes he oversimplifies his interpretations, neglecting the overtones which are a great part of artistic effect. But his work is fresh and original, the literary manner distinguished, and the collection of essays an auspicious promise of notable future achievement.

The second edition of Black's "Treatise on the Law of Income Taxation" (Kansas City: Vernon Law Book Company) makes available the latest Treasury rulings and decisions of the courts. It also works out an extremely convenient system of references to all the statutes, rulings, and decisions bearing upon any topic connected with the income tax. The author finds the act of 1913 "not only singularly infelicitous in its language, but singularly confused in its arrangement," and has therefore broken the statute up into seventy sections, numbered consecutively and introduced by descriptive headlines, yet without altering the text of the original. The appendix gives the text of all income tax acts, State or Federal, now in force in the United States, as well as the provisions of the Revised Statutes relating to the assessment and collection of internal revenue taxes.

In recent works dealing with the nature of Christian life we find, both in those that adhere to the current orthodoxy and in those that represent broader views, a pronounced emphasis on spiritual conceptions of religion. Of the former sort may be mentioned three works published by the Methodist Book Concern: "The Bible and Life" ($1), by Bishop E. H. Hughes; "The Chief Cornerstone," by W. Davison ($1.50), and "The Incomparable Christ" ($1), by C. W. Laufer. Of the latter we have, from the Abingdon Press, essays by various writers: "The Old Faith in the New Day" ($1), in which Joseph M. M. Gray holds that though forms of belief have been modified by recent exegetical and scientific views, the spiritual elevation of the old faith has maintained itself; and Mrs. Katrina Trask, in "The Mighty and the Lowly" (Macmillan; $1), points out that Jesus is not to be cited as authority for any Christian sect or dogma or for any social propaganda —he stands, says the author, above such details, as the noblest embodiment of the highest spiritual life known to history.

The merit of the new edition of Johnston's "Nathan Hale" (Yale University Press; $2.35 net) lies in the careful collection of material relating to this martyr of the Revolution, material of value only when thus brought together from many sources and placed in its proper setting. After fourteen years of such collection it may be assumed that the field has been thoroughly gleaned, and, indeed, the main outline of Hale's history has not been materially modified by the new discoveries. The volume is more a pious contribution to college pride than a serious contribution to history or biography; for Hale was a young man when he met his fate, and had hardly begun to live actively in the community where he had set out as a teacher. The author has performed his part as would be expected of so painstaking an investigator; but an occasional slip, like Levins for Levius, could have been avoided, the name being that of a prominent character in his colony; and the use of brackets is not, apparently, confined to what has been inserted by the editor, and so some confusion arises. The attempt to reproduce dashes instead of using the more ordinary commas and periods is old-fashioned and a hindrance to the reader. The author always spells Montresor with double *s*, though no good authority for it is known to us. The typography, though not so handsome as in the first edition, makes the volume very presentable.

Not the least interesting contents of Volume XVII of the "Collections of the Nebraska State Historical Society" (edited by Albert Watkins, Lincoln, Neb.; published by the Society) are the incidental notes about the Indians who, as lately as a century ago, still roamed over Nebraska. They included various bands of Sioux, Pawnee, Arapahoe, Cheyenne, Omaha, Ponca, Winnebago, and other tribes less commonly known. There is also a good deal about the Indians of the great plains generally, their traits, customs, industries, mode of living, and relations with their white neighbors. A brace of short papers by James Mooney, of the Bureau of American Ethnology, though fragmentary, give a fair

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surface picture of the red people among whom he spent several years as a member of one or another of their households. His observations on the young folk and the women, especially, contain many illustrative facts which are ignored in the more pretentious published essays on Indian life and character, like the way parents give their children moral instruction, and the young women prepare themselves for the practical duties of marriage and home-making. A contribution by Harry L. Keefe, "How Shall the Indian Be Treated Historically?" contains a typical though crude bit of Indian eloquence, from the speech of a feeble old man at the funeral of a woman of his tribe who had died in the prime of life: "My sister, you have gone before; you have passed over the mountain. I can look over into the world to which you have gone; I can look back into the world from which you have gone. I hear around you the voices of your children. I hear the voices of your mother's children as they wept when she passed over the mountain. I hear the voices of your mother's mother's children as they wept. And such is the course of man. You have gone before. You were taken when the flowers were blooming in your life. I am left here when the leaves have fallen off their branches. We don't know why you were taken. We can only say that the One above knows why I was left standing here." The same chapter gives us a number of sympathetic glimpses of Indian philosophy which are valuable as aids to an understanding of the career of the race, and another deals in considerable detail with the uses the local tribes made, for subsistence and medicinal purposes, of the plant life about them. The greater part of the volume, of course, is devoted to pioneer memorabilia and the preservation of personal data that may one day be of value to the historian in creating an atmosphere for his account of a critical period in the development of the Missouri Valley.

The translation of "War and Christianity," by Vladimir Solovyof (Putnam; $1.50 net), serves a purpose by showing the opinions of a certain class of educated Russians. The author, who was the most noted philosopher of Russia in his time (1853-1901), won a reputation by his effort to harmonize philosophy with the doctrines of the Russian state church. The present book, which is in the form of a dialogue, composed with rather meagre literary skill, is an attack upon a materialistic worship of culture on the one hand and on the teachings of Tolstoy on the other. It was published in 1900, and owes its English dress to the interest in Russian thought aroused by the present war. As to its merit, opinions may differ. To us it seems a tedious-brief piece of maundering speculation. Nothing shows so clearly the weakness of historical philosophy founded on patriotic feeling as the perusal of such philosophy based on racial, governmental, and religious prepossessions different from our own.

It is difficult to devise a new plan for a book on gardening, or find a new and individual title for one, but Benjamin F. Albaugh in "The Gardenette, or City Backyard Gardening by the Sandwich System" (Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd Co.; $1.25 net) has done both these things, and a third edition of his little book has been called for. A space of ground, say, eighteen by forty-five feet, can be made to produce a large part of the vegetables needed to supply the table of a family of five or six persons, throughout the season. Such a space can easily be found in city lots not occupied by buildings and too often made the depository of garbage and rubbish. "If only one square rod is available, it will pay to have a gardenette," especially if we use the author's "sandwich method," which was first suggested to him by noticing the marvellous growth of weeds about the base of an old decaying straw heap, where some stable manure had been dumped on a thin layer of straw. After six years of experimenting, Mr. Albaugh made his ideas public property. By his method "a solid rock, a paved street, or the tops of flat-roofed buildings could be made into successful gardens." After describing the general principles of "sandwich" gardening, the writer proceeds to details, telling how the principal vegetables and flowers can be grown most advantageously. The final chapter is devoted to wild flowers. A number of illustrations adorn the volume.

The object of J. B. Thornhill's "Adventures in Africa" (Dutton; $3.50 net) is not clear, and it has little to recommend it to any type of reader. One feels throughout the dominance of the author's personality—an unpleasant one as he himself seems to confess. The pages are filled with peevish personalities and criticisms of individuals and companies. Here and there the author forgets himself and his financial troubles and gives us an excellent bit of abstract description—a lion hunt or a brush with ugly natives. A three-line quotation will serve as a gauge for his science. "The white ant is not a true ant, but a beetle which is called a termite. He works only at night, and will eat anything he comes across." The book is an uninspiring account of four years of the life of an unsuccessful man, and we fear that the fulfilment of its destiny will be on the shelves of second-hand bookshops rather than in the libraries of lovers of travel and adventure.

The "Proceedings of the Western States Water Power Conference" (C. C. Chapman; $1 net), held at Portland, Ore., last autumn, and attended by the Governors and official delegates of thirteen Far Western States, constitute a wordy blast in enunciation of the doctrine that the States alone have the constitutional right to control the use of the waters within their boundaries for all purposes except navigation, as well as the right to "regulate the rates and service of their public utilities." The House, in the Water-power bill it has just passed, properly takes a radically different view of the subject; and there is excellent prospect that, in essentials, the Senate will concur.

"The Political History of Slavery in the United States," by James Z. George (Neale; $3 net), owes its present form to the devotion of William H. Leavell, United States Minister to Guatemala, who has laboriously prepared for publication a work, the original manuscript of which had been lost, and the typewritten copy of which had suffered the quadruple attacks of fire, water, decay, and imperfect transcription. It was the intention of the author, who will be remembered as long a Senator from Mississippi, to complete his work by a discussion and, as he believed, a refutation of so much of the reconstruction policy of Congress as denied to the Southern States the control of the suffrage; but his death, in 1897, defeated that purpose. For those who still wish to read a somewhat old-fashioned exposition of the Southern theory of State rights, the fragment now published will have interest. An appendix contains the minority report of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, in 1887, written by George, in successful opposition to the bill to provide for inquests, under Federal authority, in cases arising out of election troubles. The editor contributes a brief sketch of George's life, and Prof. John Bassett Moore writes a short introduction.

Two recent Columbia dissertations are Dr. Victor O. Freeburg's "Disguise Plots in Elizabethan Drama," and Dr. John C. Jordan's "Robert Greene" (Columbia University Press). The former studies the stage tradition of changed personal appearance—the female page, the boy bride, the spy, the disguised lover—as a device advancing or terminating the intrigue. The numerous Elizabethan plays in which this device occurs are analyzed and the questions of origins are followed far afield into Italian *novella*, classical comedy, and mediæval romance. Apparently the principal English contribution is the doubtfully happy one of introducing an element of surprise at the moment of discovery.

Sir Edward Creasy's "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World," now republished in an inexpensive edition (Oxford University Press; 1s. 6d. net), has long held a worthy place among the few English literary classics on military history. Nourished on the classical writers of Greece and Rome, and accepting traditional views, his bent was literary rather than scientific. He was content to follow chroniclers, memoirists, and the older writers of even his day (1851). His descriptions, therefore, particularly of the later battles like Pultava, Valmy, and Waterloo, are altogether inadequate from the point of view of modern historical science. His great fears of Russia, whom he compared with Rome in her lust for world conquest, have not been realized. His choice of the battles which may be regarded as decisive is open to question. But his happy power of description gives permanent merit to his volume, and his attitude towards the study of military history deserves approval. He acknowledges that war in itself is an evil, and that the qualities of a great soldier are to be found in the basest as well as in the noblest of mankind; but he maintains that there are certain battles which deserve our attention, independently of the moral worth of the combatants, because of their far-reaching effects on human destinies.

There are weary hours for the cross-reference cataloguer in "Ephemera," by Geoffrey Drage (London: Smith, Elder; 10s. 6d. net). Educated at Eton College, Moscow, Berlin, and various other German universities, comfortably at home in the texts of the Greek and Latin classics, capable of addressing international congresses in Italian, French, or German, employed with confidence to carry on historical, economic, or sociological investigations for the Government, contributor of the sketch of Russian Literature in Volume XI of the Cambridge Modern History, able to express himself with intelligence, point, and weight on one knows not how many other important subjects touched in these 450 pages,

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Mr. Drage is a conspicuous refutation of the belief of many that the day of the really capable and useful all-round man is hopelessly gone. Nearly two hundred pages are given to labor and other social problems, about one hundred to Imperial problems. The text is made up from letters to the daily papers, speeches in the House of Commons, addresses to societies, extracts from magazine articles, official reports, etc.

The years 1898 and 1899 found Mr. Drage seriously fearful of trouble with Russia, and anxiously pressing upon Parliament the necessity for some firm and stated understanding by which the peril might be eliminated, since "the one great interest of England is peace." Ten years later the hopelessly strained relations between Russia and Germany had removed from his mind all thought of serious peril from the former. With Germany, he believed in the possibility of a continued friendly understanding, but only on condition that the maintenance of England's two-Power naval standard should render hopeless any German ambition to usurp England's position of influence in the world at large. "There is no doubt whatever of the pacific intentions of the German commercial world, still less of the pacific intentions of many distinguished German statesmen, diplomatists, and professors, not to mention Socialists; but when it comes to the pinch, they simply will not count." A prophecy only too amply justified. A year and a half before the war came, Mr. Drage referred to England's long-standing distrust of Russian bureaucracy, based on the danger of a Russian blow at her route to India, but distinctly admitted that the reason for fear was passing with the growth of parliamentary government in Russia. At present, with the Allies finally successful in the war, he sees the way clear to a happy democratic and industrial development of Russian resources, aided by British capital, and dangerous to none, but a distinct asset in the preservation of world-peace. A mere "glimpse into the carpenter's shop while the workman is still at his lathe" this volume may be, but it is none the less full of helpful information and material for serious thought.

"Already this century has witnessed the first municipalized street railways and telephone in American cities; a national epidemic of street paving and cleaning; the quadrupling of electric-lighting service and the national appropriation of display lighting; a successful crusade against dirt of all kinds—smoke, flies, germs—and the diffusion of constructive provisions for health like baths, laundries, comfort stations, milk stations, school nurses, and open-air schools; fire prevention; the humanizing of the police and the advent of the policewoman"—we cannot quote more of Charles Zueblin's buoyant catalogue of civic advance, given in the preface to the revised edition of "American Municipal Progress" (Macmillan; $2 net). The purpose of his volume he defines as "primarily to indicate to civic and social workers, public officials, and intelligent citizens the vast scope of municipal activity to-day." The mere turning of a fraction of the pages suffices for that. The book is rather an ordered array of material than a presentation. Its chief usefulness is, accordingly, that of a reference volume—it is emphatically a book to be tasted, perhaps chewed, but on no account to be swallowed. It is even more ephemeral than it need be. Why give hostages to accuracy by recording that "the boys in the New Trier Township High School at Kenilworth, Ill., meet for fifty-five minutes after the school session for gymnastic exercises," and that "Birmingham, Ala., conducts a brief course on sex hygiene for mothers, delivered at five school centres in the middle of the afternoon"? Such multiplication of detail becomes ludicrous. The value of the volume lies in its comprehensiveness—it covers, or rather touches upon, everything from billboards to municipal universities, and has a bibliography that exhibits the same quality.

Academic Societies

THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

The sessions of the annual general meeting were held at the rooms of the Society from April 13-15 inclusive, and were attended by the largest number of visiting members since the Franklin celebration. The address of welcome was made by the president, Dr. W. W. Keen, who with Vice-Presidents W. B. Scott, of Princeton, and E. C. Pickering, of Harvard, presided at the various sessions. Forty-eight papers were presented in which a very wide range of subjects was treated.

A timely paper on "The Common Folk of Shakespeare" was presented by Prof. F. E. Schelling, of the University of Pennsylvania, intended to show that Shakespeare, in the presentation of persons who are neither of exalted rank nor menials, represents his personages according to their individual traits and not with reference to anything that can be called class prejudice.

Dr. W. H. Furness reported the results of his observations of the mentality of chimpanzees and orang-outangs covering several years spent in the effort to educate one or two individuals. He concludes that they can understand what is said to them better than any professionally trained animals he has observed, and show a remarkable understanding of the connection between spoken words and objects and actions. Their memories are excellent, but it seems to be impossible to make any progress in teaching them articulate speech. It may be humorously remarked that "while even men may easily make monkeys of themselves, the converse at present offers great difficulties."

The departments of botany and zoölogy were treated in several able papers by Prof. Trelease, of the University of Illinois; Prof. Harshberger, of the University of Pennsylvania; Prof. Atkinson, of Cornell; Prof. Coulter, of Chicago, and Prof. Osterhout, of Harvard.

Four papers on geology and allied subjects were read by Prof. Ehrenfeld, of Pennsylvania; Prof. Davis, of Harvard; Prof. Iddings, of Chicago, and Prof. Stevenson, of New York.

The last paper treated of the mutual relations of fossil fuels. To show conclusively the doctrine that these form a continuous series from peat to anthracite, the author proposes an exhaustive study of the possible members of the series. The general study has advanced so far as to justify the first part of the monograph. This considers peat and the tertiary coals, the second will treat of the mesozoic and the paleozoic coals.

By the use of a new form of phosphoroscope Prof. E. L. Nichols, of Cornell, has succeeded in taking photographs by the Lumière process, which show the colors of certain phosphorescent sulphides. The change of tint by decay and the striking changes of color produced by cooling to the temperature of liquid air were exhibited by these photographs and the theory was very briefly discussed.

There were several other important communications on subjects in physics and chemistry, for the most part highly technical.

A very important problem on solar physics was discussed by Dr. L. A. Bauer, of Washington. It has long been thought that there may be a definite relation between terrestrial magnetic activity and solar activity of one kind or another. Dr. Bauer's conclusions are, however, that none of the various solar activities, whether of sun spots, faculæ, prominences, or calcium flocculi, can be used as an adequate measure of the various ionizing agencies ultimately responsible for the magnetic changes recorded on the earth.

Among the physiological papers one by Dr. R. Pearl, of the Maine Agricultural Station, "On the Effects of Continued Administration of Alcohol and Ether to the Domestic Fowl, with Special Reference to the Progeny," excited much interest. Contrary to the general belief that continued doses of such poisons would prove harmful, it was shown conclusively that just the opposite effect resulted. The general health and weight of the individuals were superior in the treated birds to the same in the controls, and the egg-laying qualities of the hens in the tippling families was improved.

Prof. R. W. Wood, of Johns Hopkins, showed the results of some of his recent color photographic work on Jupiter, Saturn, and the Moon. Different monochromatic photographs of the same body may tell much as to the character of its surface.

"On the Probable Temperature of Mars," was the title of a very pointed paper by Prof. H. N. Russell, of Princeton. His conclusions are that the temperature of Mars is far too low to permit the existence of life as we know it on the earth.

Other important papers were presented by Prof. E. C. Pickering and by Miss A. J. Cannon, of the Harvard Observatory, on the use of the photographic method in determining stella magnitudes and in detecting and cataloguing variable stars. The new catalogue at Harvard now contains the data on over 4,600 variable stars, of which nearly 3,400 have been discovered at Harvard. A study of these stars has been going on for the last twenty-five years by means of a library of 250,000 stella photographs which furnishes the only complete material in the world for the purpose.

The Saturday afternoon session was devoted as usual to a special symposium, this year on International Law. The programme was as follows: "Outline," by Hon. John Bassett Moore, member of the Permanent Court at The Hague, late Assistant Secretary of State; "Judicial Aspects: International Arbitration," by Hon. Charlemagne Tower, late Ambassador to Germany; "Legislative Aspects," by George Grafton Wilson, professor of International Law, Harvard University; "Administrative Aspects," by Philip Marshall Brown, professor of International Law, Princeton

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University; "World Organization," by Hon. David Jayne Hill, member of Permanent Administrative Council of the Hague Tribunal, late Ambassador to Germany. Two other papers on similar topics were also read at another session by Prof. L. S. Rowe and by T. Willing Balch, of Philadelphia.

On Friday evening a reception was held at the hall of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, followed by a lecture by Dr. L. O. Howard, of Washington, "On Some Disease-bearing Insects."

On Saturday evening the usual banquet at the Bellevue-Stratford was attended by over one hundred members and guests.

ARTHUR WILLIS GOODSPEED.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

The annual sessions of the American Oriental Society were held at the National Museum in Washington, April 24-26. It was the first time in many years that the Society had met at the national capital, and it was particularly gratifying that the attendance of members and guests was so large at all of the five sessions. Forty-one new members were elected.

An important step was taken on the recommendation of the board of directors, looking towards an increased scientific activity of the Society. In addition to the *Journal*, published quarterly, it is now proposed to inaugurate an American Oriental series for publications of a larger character. Three important projects were brought forward and accepted by the Society as part of the programme for the proposed series, namely, (1) the preparation of a Pali dictionary, the need of which is most urgent for the study of Buddhism and the extensive Pali literature; (2) a Babylonian-Assyrian dictionary to supplement earlier works by including the vast amount of new material published during the last two decades, and (3) a comparative grammar of the Philippine dialects. This last work, prepared by Dr. F. R. Blake, of Johns Hopkins University, is now ready for the press. A committee consisting of Professors Hopkins, of Yale, and Jastrow, of the University of Pennsylvania, was appointed to obtain the co-operation of fellow members in preparing the plans for the two large dictionaries and to suggest means for carrying out these and other projects.

As a recognition of the services rendered to Oriental studies in this country by the Rev. Dr. William Hayes Ward, until recently one of the editors of the *Independent*, who, in the course of his long career, has twice served the Society as president, it was decided to dedicate the current volume of the *Journal* to him. In commemoration, also, of Dr. Ward having reached his eightieth birthday, it is proposed to attach to the volume a picture of Dr. Ward, together with a sketch of his many-sided and remarkably active career, crowned by the publication a few years ago of the standard work on the "Seal Cylinders of Western Asia," which forms one of the most valuable publications of the Carnegie Institution.

At the five sessions, about thirty-five papers were presented in full and about ten read by title. The meetings were presided over by President A. V. Williams Jackson, of Columbia University, who at the opening session delivered the presidential address on Persian mystic poetry. He traced the origin of mystic poetry among the Persians to several causes, among which he was inclined to grant a larger importance than has hitherto been recognized to the mystic element in the teachings of Zarathustra himself. Other influences at work in promoting mysticism in Persia were the esoteric doctrines developed in connection with the Prophet Mohammed, the reaction of the Aryan mind against Semitic rationalism, and, in the third place, Neo-Platonism. It is interesting to note that one of the earliest representatives of mysticism in Persia was a woman, Rabi'a, who died about 752, and whom Professor Jackson described as an Eastern Saint Theresa. The chief features of the mystic poetry of Persia, applying both to the earliest and to the latest specimens, were the passionate love of Allah and the glorification of goodness and beauty. Allah is addressed in terms and metaphors of human love in a way that reminds us at times of the allegorical interpretation of the Biblical collection of love songs known as the Song of Songs, which, although originally of a secular character, were explained by Jewish and Christian theologians as describing the ideal relationship between God and Israel or between Christ and the Church. Again, the pantheistic strain in the mystic poetry of Persia recalls the underlying thought in the Vedantas. Professor Jackson illustrated the lecture by reading various selections from the mystic poetry in English translations which retained admirably the spirit of the original. The last of the more classic poets of Persia who was permeated with mysticism was Jāmī, who died in the very year that Columbus discovered America. An echo of the mystical note lingers on, however, even in modern Persian poetry, for the singing quality has not been lost from the Persian voice.

The papers read covered, as usual, a very wide field, and it is obviously impossible in a general survey to refer to more than a limited number. Moreover, most of them were of a very technical character, dealing with special philological problems.

A paper of general interest was the first one on the programme, read by Dr. I. Shapiro, in charge of the Hebrew collections in the Library of Congress. This collection, due chiefly to the munificent generosity of the Hon. Jacob H. Schiff, of New York, now consists of over 18,000 volumes, covering the entire field of the Old Testament, commentaries, Talmud, Liturgy, and the older homiletic collections known as the Midrashim, as well as later and modern productions, poetry, philosophy, and belles lettres. All the notable Hebrew printers of the fifteenth and following centuries are represented, and a feature on which the learned curator in charge proposes to lay much stress is the collection of books of modern literature translated into Hebrew. It will come as a surprise to many to learn that not only several of the works of William James have appeared in Hebrew garb, but also many of the stories of Mark Twain.

Another paper of unusual interest was an account given by Miss A. Rudolph, of New York, of recent achievements of women in India, based largely on an intimate acquaintance with conditions through long residence. The change that has come over modern India finds illustration in such facts as the existence of a ladies' club in Lahore, the membership of which is composed of Moslem and Hindu women. In the Grant Medical College at Bombay thirty-eight women medical students are working alongside of men, and there is shortly to be established a medical school in Delhi for women alone, founded in memory of Lady Hardinge. Most significant, however, is the position of modern Hindu women in literature. At the present time Mrs. Ghosal, a sister of Rabindranath Tagore, the famous Hindu poet, and Shobona Devi, a niece of the poet, take a high place in literary achievements. The former has written novels and short stories in Bengali, some of which have been translated into English, and she has also edited for a good many years a magazine called *Bharati*. The most prominent of the present female writers in India is Sarojini Naidu, who, despite the fact that she is the mother of a large family, has found time for all kinds of public activities and for literary accomplishments which were recognized by her election as a fellow of the Royal Society of Literature in 1914.

Prof. Julius Morgenstern, of the Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, read an exceedingly interesting paper on "The Bones of the Paschal Lamb," which, according to Biblical precept, were not to be crushed. This prohibition rests upon the belief, widespread among primitive people, that so long as the bones were intact new flesh could be built upon them by the Deity, and in this way the animal or the man made to live again. The Paschal Lamb as an offering to the Deity was thus, by having its bones preserved, assured of reincarnation. The famous vision of the Prophet Ezekiel, who sees the dry bones brought together, covered with flesh and taking on new life, the whole being a symbol of the restoration of Israel, was deduced as an illustration of the late survival of the belief among the Hebrews.

Mr. W. Norman Brown, of Johns Hopkins University (a pupil of Professor Bloomfield), who is devoting himself especially to the study of Indian folklore, gave a most interesting survey of the bibliography of the subject which, dating back to 1868, now covers a large scope. Some 2,000 popular tales have been gathered through oral traditions, and, curiously enough, it turns out that a considerable number of these tales circulating among the populace are not of popular but of literary origin. Mr. Brown's bibliography, which he hopes soon to publish, will be the first collection making any pretence to completeness.

The meeting of the Society was rather unusual through the large number of papers presented by young scholars—a good augury for the future of Oriental studies in this country.

Another of those young scholars, Mr. W. F. Albright, of the Johns Hopkins University, gave a most ingenious and happy interpretation of a passage in the Babylonian deluge story, which showed that, among the Babylonians, as among other people, the serpent became an emblem of continued renewal of life through the symbolism involved in the sloughing of the skin. In the discussion on this paper attention was directed to the part that the serpent played in the third chapter of Genesis, which likewise rested upon the same association of ideas connecting with the serpent, to wit, the renewal of life, and, therefore, to all practical intents immortality.

Prof. Franklin Edgerton, of the University of Pennsylvania, in a paper on the Sources of "The Philosophy of the Upanishads," showed the two characteristic features of philosophic thought in India to be, on the one hand,

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the continuity of speculation, and, on the other, the lack of any definite system, even in the case of the Upanishads. We miss the point of the philosophy contained in the Upanishads unless we bear in mind that the ideas are derived from the old Vedic literature, and that the treatment of philosophic themes is tentative and unstable rather than systematic.

Dr. J. B. Nies, of Brooklyn, spoke on an important duplicate that had recently come into his hands of a text hitherto known to us from a copy in the Louvre Museum. It is an inscription of Entemena, a ruler of southern Babylonia, who belongs to the third millennium before this year. The inscription contains an account of the treaty between Entemena and an arch enemy, and is probably the oldest record of a treaty between two groups known to us. The shape of the cylinder suggests a net, and this view is borne out by the representation of the meshes of a net at one end. Since the inscription refers a number of times to the net of the deity in which the enemy has been caught, Dr. Nies made the very interesting suggestion that the ancient Babylonian custom of writing historic inscriptions on cylinders arose from the desire to put these inscriptions on objects shaped like the nets of the gods, and with a view of symbolizing, through the shape of the inscription itself, the hoped-for protection of the deity by the capture of the enemy.

The Tuesday afternoon session was held at the Catholic University, which entertained the Society at lunch on that day. The papers at that session dealt largely with the historical study of religions, a subject that is now regularly included within the scope of the Society.

The papers of Professors Jastrow and Carnoy, both of the University of Pennsylvania, supplemented each other. Professor Jastrow set forth, on the basis of recent studies, the differences between the Sumerian and Akkadian views of beginnings, the Sumerian myths symbolizing the change from the dry to the wet season and making the world begin with the coming of the rain, whereas the Semites or Akkadians in their myths indicate the cessation of the rainy season as the beginning of vegetation and the establishment of law and order in the universe.

Professor Carnoy showed in a most interesting way how closely some of the Iranian traditions follow along the line of Babylonian points of view. He favored the assumption of Babylonian influences penetrating at an early age into the countries lying to the east, just as these influences have been shown to extend to lands to the west of the Euphrates. One of the most interesting papers of the afternoon was that presented by Mr. Frank Edward Johnson, who has spent a great portion of his life in northern Africa, and who gave an account of the Troglodytes of southern Tunisia. These curious cave-dwellers, digging out entire villages in the mountains that start about twenty-five miles from the seacoast, have lived in southern Tunisia ever since the days of ancient Egypt, and, until recently, when they have come in contact with the French influences, have changed their habits but slightly. Living in small communities hostile to one another, their villages were in reality forts built on eminences and with narrow and difficult apertures as an additional protection. Mr. Johnson showed how even in modern times, when the Troglodytes, coming from their dwellings in the hidden recesses in the mountains, have built their villages in the plains in order to be nearer to the bazaars, they still continue the habit of building their houses under ground instead of above the surface of the soil.

Mr. L. Dominian, the secretary of the American Geographical Society, gave a lucid account of the reason for Turkey's world relation, which is derived entirely from the geographical position as the starting-point for the route towards the East. Mr. Dominian showed the important part that Asia Minor played in the history of mankind, how along the coast the Greek settlements looked towards the West, while the non-Aryan groups in the interior likewise looked towards the East. The opposition between Islam and Christianity gradually shut off the East from Europe and stimulated exploration which finally led to the discovery of the Western Continent. In our own days we are witnessing, on a large scale, the reopening of the East to inter-European rivalry.

Prof. Paul Haupt, of the Johns Hopkins University, presented a number of brief communications, the most interesting of which was his explanation of the famous and somewhat mystical "Open Sesame" in the Arabian Nights. According to Professor Haupt, the word Sesame refers to the stone which was customarily placed at the entrance of tombs or caves.

The Society elected as its president for the current year Prof. George A. Barton, of Bryn Mawr College—a proper recognition of Professor Barton's remarkable scientific activity, covering so large a portion of the Semitic field, and so fruitful of results.

The meetings of the Society for 1917 will be held in Boston and Cambridge on April 9, 10, and 11. M. J., Jr.

Drama

PLAYS BY MASEFIELD.

The Tragedy of Nan, and Other Plays. By John Masefield. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

In a little preface to these plays Mr. Masefield remarks that modern dramatists lack "the power of exultation that comes from a delighted brooding on excessive, terrible things." It is a somewhat dark saying, but his use of the word "excessive" is significant. It seems to suggest that the exaggeration, or labored emphasis, which greatly affects the artistic and dramatic value of these works, is the result, in part at least, of deliberate calculation. "The Tragedy of Nan," now nearly ten years old, has been spoken of as a masterpiece. It is incomparably the best of the three pieces in this volume, but, notwithstanding its many striking passages, it scarcely justifies that description. Poetic imagination it has of a rare order, often expressed in vividly natural dialogue, but in the strained pursuit of realism there is a too frequent recourse to what is merely common, sordid, and actual. The action is impeded by trivial and reiterative small-talk. Nan is the one vital figure; the other personages are either overdrawn or lacking in individuality. Her story, said to be founded on fact, must be pretty well known. She is an orphan—daughter of a man hanged for sheep-stealing—who has been taken into the home of her uncle, and subjected, by her cruel and hypocritical aunt, who is jealous of her, to the coarsest insult and abuse. This woman, Mrs. Pargetter, is depicted as a monster of incredible meanness and spite. Matters come to a crisis when Dick Gurvil, a village Don Juan, makes love to Nan, while supposed to be courting her cousin, Jennie. Dick, bullied and threatened by Mrs. Pargetter, brutally and promptly jilts Nan for Jennie. Then news comes that Nan's father has been wrongfully convicted, and that the Government has awarded her fifty pounds by way of reparation. This irony of fate fills Nan's cup of bitterness to the brim, and she gives free vent to pent-up passion and despair. The climax is reached when Dick, as covetous as fickle, renews his suit to Nan, who, outraged and scornful, stabs him to the heart, lest he betray more maids, and goes forth to end her troubles by suicide.

This tale, whether historic or not, is, in its general outlines, entirely human and plausible, and, in its interplay of circumstance and character, truly tragic, but it is not told with the verisimilitude of skilful and effective drama. There is an obvious and disillusionizing discrepancy between the realistic literalism of some scenes—characteristic of the modern advanced school—and the imaginative eloquence of others. This is destructive of the naturalism aimed at, and it may be added that it is only where the poet has let his fancy have free play that the dramatist becomes impressive and convincing. In his realism he may be precise, but he is also lamentably common. Where he achieves distinction is in occasional flashes of illuminative detail, either of idiomatic speech or rustic habit—in the crudely worded but genuinely poetic utterances of his half-demented, visionary old fiddler, and his admirably sympathetic and intelligent study of the psychological development in Nan, who is finely feminine in her filial devotion, her patient submission and endurance, her maternal longings, her trustfulness, and her sincerity. She is a tragic creation in an environment of ordinary and somewhat clumsy domestic melodrama. Her revolt, and ruin, in the moment of her seeming triumph, are not only strongly dramatic, but, in the prescribed conditions, as logical as they are pathetic. Her sudden realization of the injustice that has wrecked her life, of the futility of her father's rehabilitation and her own suffering, and of the sordid baseness of her own little world, crushes in her all power of further resistance and of hope, and fills her with a desperate impatience. In this final catastrophe, with all its keen emotional insight and passionate utterance, there is genuine inspiration. Here is pure tragedy.

Among the more notable passages of the play, is the opening of the third act, where Gaffer Pearce tells Nan of the death and burial of his early love. The relation is

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full of poetry and pathos, though couched in the simplest diction. The skill with which the old man's wanderings are made prophetic of Nan's own fate—are woven, as it were, into the more realistic fabric of the piece—is admirable. Another striking example of the power in the commonest words, when rightly ordered, is afforded in the biting taunts with which Nan overwhelms her treacherous cousin, Jennie. This is the artistic realism that intensifies without distorting truth. There is a similar quality in Nan's fierce denunciation of Mrs. Pargetter, while her final harangue to Dick Gurvil, before killing him, is a model of simple dramatic eloquence. Had the whole play been written upon these levels it would, indeed, have been a masterpiece.

The weaknesses in "The Tragedy of Nan" are chronic in "The Campden Wonder" and "Mrs. Harrison," the two little pieces which complete the volume. They will add nothing to the literary or dramatic reputation of Mr. Masefield. They, too, are said to be founded on fact, but are none the more precious on that account. In combination—one supplements the other—they tell how John Perry, a drunken farm laborer, out of spite, accused himself, his mother, and his brother of murdering their employer, Will Harrison, and how all three were promptly hanged for a crime that never was committed. After the execution, Harrison, who had been on a prolonged spree, returned home to his wife, who thereupon took poison. Out of this gloomy tale an effective melodrama might undoubtedly be constructed, but Mr. Masefield sets it forth in two crude sketches—with an almost total disregard of theatrical probabilities or opportunities—which, on their face, are absolutely incredible. They are the efforts of an amateur, with no conspicuous merit other than a vigorous realism of dialect, which probably induced Mr. Granville Barker to produce them. But dialect alone does not constitute a play.

J. Ranken Towse.

"THE SEA-GULL."

In familiarizing Americans with Tchekov's sombre play, "The Sea-Gull," the Washington Square Players have performed a doubtful service. For with the best of intentions it is hard for an American—it is absurd for him to try—to take seriously the neurasthenic maunderings which in this play are paraded in the guise of dramatic complications. We no not mean to imply that the matter of the play is not true to life; yet it is certainly not typical of even a small class. Briefly we are confronted by a young man—the son of a famous actress, herself the mistress of a noted author—who repines because he can get no recognition as a writer. He tries his hand at a play, rather a dramatic monologue, and in the presence of his mother and her friends has it recited by his sweetheart, who is an aspirant for the stage and a neighbor in this lovely Russian village. Of course, the production is jeered off the stage. To make matters worse, the girl runs off to Moscow and falls before the charm of the noted author. A final act shows a meeting between the girl and the young man, after she has been ruined, though still adoring her betrayer; also a meeting of the young man and the author, with whom he shakes hands. A moment later comes a pistol-shot, and the audience is glad to learn that the youth has put himself out of misery.

The only answer which a normal American can make to this sort of thing is that, if the boy had had the advantage of some athletic sport, he would doubtless have worked off most of the vague feelings which he mistook for the stirrings of genius.

F.

Art

"PREHISTORY."

An Introduction to the Study of Prehistoric Art. By Ernest A. Parkyn. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $3.25 net.

In the search for origins, which is so characteristic an activity of the last seventy-five years, no field, perhaps, has shown more surprising results than that of "prehistory," as the study of man's development before the days of written records has come to be called. The investigation of the kitchen-middens of Denmark, the lake dwellings of central Europe, the Minoan and Mycenæan sites in Greece, and the pre-dynastic graves of Egypt, to mention only a few of the most remarkable traces of prehistoric man, has resulted in one surprise after another and given us a knowledge of the gradual development of civilization such as was undreamed of a hundred years ago. Not the least surprising result of these investigations has been the revelation of the extreme antiquity of art. Even in the earlier age of stone, men had learned to carve bone and horn, to model clay, to carve and paint remarkably life-like figures of animals, and even to attempt more extensive compositions containing human figures. The literature of these discoveries, for the most part in French and German, is widely scattered in periodicals and ponderous reports, difficult of access to the general reader, and not lightly to be attacked even by the seasoned specialist. There was room, therefore, for a popular account in English of the art of prehistoric times, such as Mr. Parkyn has attempted to give us.

The book is deserving of praise in many respects. It is very fully illustrated, so that the reader has constantly before him the objects under discussion, and comparatively full footnotes place in his hands the means of tracing the author's statements to their sources. It is written in an admirable spirit of simply stating facts and theories and avoiding controversy, a spirit not so easy to maintain in a field which bristles with unsolved problems. But we have to confess that we finished the book with a sense of disappointment, a feeling that it ought to be possible to make a better book than this out of the materials available.

The reasons for this feeling are not difficult to discover. For one thing, Mr. Parkyn's arrangement of his material lays undue emphasis on the art of the palæolithic period. Admittedly, this phase of the development, including as it does the remarkable carvings and paintings from the caves of southern France and northern Spain, is one of the most important, and the lack of a comprehensive account in English (Professor Osborne's "Men of the Old Stone Age" was published almost at the same time with Mr. Parkyn's book) might justify a somewhat fuller treatment than strict logic would demand. But, surely, it is allotting a disproportionate amount of space to this period to devote to it more than a third of the 337 pages of the book. The result is that many interesting aspects of the later development are very summarily treated.

There is only passing reference, for instance, to the remarkable paintings that have survived from the bronze age in Greece, and when the early iron age is reached the author frankly confines his discussion to remains found in Britain. It is true that the "Late Keltic" art of Britain represents one of the most important developments of the iron age, but ideally a book on prehistoric art ought surely to contain some account of the early iron-age monuments of other parts of Europe, especially those of the Hallstatt period, the Villanova civilization in Italy, and the so-called geometric age in Greece. All of these could have been included if the earlier chapters had been made somewhat briefer, and those chapters themselves, from the standpoint of the general reader, would have been improved by the omission of many details. One gets the impression that the author started with the idea of writing a much bigger book, and then found himself obliged, as the work grew, to impose greater and greater limitations on his discussion of the several periods.

Other disturbing features are the rather monotonous style in which much of the book is written and the numerous misprints. It may be, as a recent reviewer in the *Nation* has suggested, that proof-reading is becoming one of the lost arts, but for errors in the spelling of proper names and the titles of books only the author can be held responsible. A writer on art should respect the art of writing enough to avoid such sentences as "In fact the conclusion seems clear that the drawings on the walls were specially made by the artists visiting this part of the cave for the special purpose of executing them, and who used that part of the cave near the entrance or some neighboring shelter as a habitation" (p. 119). "Also in a most striking manner by a recent discovery in the island of Zealand" (p. 229) is not even a sentence. Such careless slips help to confirm the impression of haste and lack of revision which is produced by the arrangement of the material.

But one should not be too much influenced by these evidences of hasty and careless writing. As an introduction to a fascinating field of investigation, the book is welcome. It is no small merit to have put so much in so small a compass and pointed the way to further study; and the student of art will be grateful for a book in which

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the monuments of prehistoric times are treated as objects worthy of study in themselves, not simply as materials for theories on primitive religion or on migrations and trade routes.

"Michelangelo and his Work," by Romain Rolland (Duffield, illustrated; $2.50 net), is a good translation from Rolland's briefer monograph, which appeared in the "Maîtres de l'Art." It follows the general scheme of that excellent series, hence is less discursive and rhapsodical than the longer study, more systematic and better adapted to the use of the average student. There is some loss involved in this conformity to a scheme, yet the book is perhaps the best brief biography of the master that we have. The impression is disfigured by numerous misprints, which should be removed in the next printing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Chase, M. and S. A Honeymoon Experiment. Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.
Stringer, A. The Door of Dread. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.25 net.
Wright, H. S. The Valley of Lebanon. New York: Robert J. Shores. $1 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Hearne, R. P. Zeppelins and Super-Zeppelins. Lane. $1 net.
Hitti, P. K. The Origins of the Islamic State. Vol. I. Longmans, Green.
Julius Cæsar. Edited by J. H. Lobban. Putnam. 25 cents net.
Kilbourne, F. W. Chronicles of the White Mountains. Houghton Mifflin. $2 net.
Kirke, D. Domestic Life in Rumania. Lane. $1.50 net.
Kittredge, G. L. Shakspere: An Address. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press.
Manchester, R. E. The Trail of the Indoor Outer. Menasha, Wis.: George Banta Publishing Company.
Rinehart, M. R. Through Glacier Park. Houghton Mifflin. 75 cents net.
Shakespeare Studies. By Members of the Department of English of University of Wisconsin. Published by the Society.
The John Rylands Library, Manchester: Catalogue of an Exhibition of the Works of Shakespeare, His Sources and the Writings of His Principal Contemporaries. Vol. III, No. 1. Longmans, Green.
Transactions of the Royal Historical Society. Third Series. Vol. IX. London: Royal Historical Society.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Wright, P. Q. The Enforcement of International Law Through Municipal Law in the United States. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois.

POETRY.

Brennan, I. Humorous Poems. Boston: Badger. $1.25 net.

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